

BOOK NO: 1797533



**THE PERSONNEL FUNCTION IN THE COLLEGES OF
FURTHER EDUCATION**

TYRONE RICH

A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements
of the Council for National Academic Awards for the degree of
MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

NOVEMBER 1989

Sponsored by: Gwent College of Higher Education, Newport,
Gwent.

ABSTRACT

The thesis examines the evolution of the approach to staff management in colleges of further education, and the implications of current pressures upon them for the further development of this management function.

It recognizes that the traditional approach to the management of staff is based upon the presumption that staff have only to be recruited and selected to ensure that effective management occurs. This approach underplays the importance of personnel management in a labour intensive industry.

It seeks to establish the likely directions of future development of the staff management function in F.E. colleges, in the context of governmental and market-induced pressures upon them. It uses the models of personnel management and human resource management, as developed in the literature (itself based largely on experience in industro-commercial organisations), to guide this part of the analysis, taking into account the similarities and differences in the nature of the the two types of organisation.

The thesis concludes that colleges are likely to find it increasingly imperative to develop more deliberate personnel policies and practices and to integrate them more closely with objectives and strategies. To this extent, and in this

context, the model of strategic human resource management is considered to offer more guidance to F.E. college managements on how they might proceed in the emergent environment.

The author wishes to acknowledge the support, encouragement and advice received from Professor George F. Thomason, Emeritus Professor of Industrial Relations, University of Wales, and Dr. Colin Palfrey, of Gwent College of Higher Education. A debt of equal magnitude is also owed to Mrs. Diane Curtis, who kindly typed the thesis.

**THE PERSONNEL FUNCTION IN THE COLLEGES OF
FURTHER EDUCATION**

CONTENTS

	page
INTRODUCTION	(i) - (ix)
CHAPTER 1 THE NEED FOR A NEW STRATEGY	1
Staff Effectiveness.	1
Organisational Commitment - an additional dimension.	6
Neglect of Labour Strategy.	10
CHAPTER 2 SPECIALISM VERSUS GENERALISM	15
The Nature and Function of Personnel Management in Industry and Commerce.	15
Personnel Management- Objectives, Policies, Activities.	21
The Role of Personnel in Industry and Commerce.	24
Human Resource Management - the alternative model.	29
CHAPTER 3 THE FURTHER EDUCATION SYSTEM - ADMINISTRATIVE FRAMEWORK AND CONSTRAINTS	40
The Legal Framework.	40
Governance	45
F.E. Central Control.	47
F.E. seen as a System.	54
Outputs.	56
Inputs.	63
Input - Output Relations.	75

CHAPTER 4	THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON F.E. MANAGEMENT	77
	Theoretical Perspectives	77
	Organisation.	79
	Management Roles.	85
	Direction.	99
	Control.	104
	Shaping forces.	121
CHAPTER 5	PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT MODELS	125
	The American Experience.	125
	The British Experience.	127
	Personnel Management Support Systems - the Benefits.	133
	Human Resource Management - the Emerging Alternative.	137
	The College as a Quasi-Industrial Setting.	141
CHAPTER 6	A HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT MODEL FOR FURTHER EDUCATION	159
	HRM Model for Further Education	159
	Possible Constraints and Implications.	166
	Benefits and Relevance of the Model.	179
CONCLUSION		197
REFERENCES		201
GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS		222
APPENDICES		225

THE PERSONNEL FUNCTION IN THE COLLEGES OF FURTHER EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

The Further Education (F.E.) sector meets a wide range of educational and training needs by performing a complex set of tasks in an unstable and uncertain environment. It provides vocational courses to prepare school leavers, (the 16-19 year old cohort), for employment; updating and retraining courses for adults; and general education, including Advanced levels and the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE), courses. Under the heading of community education it provides for the social, physical and recreational education of all, and for leisure time activities and basic (numeracy and literacy) education. Its activities range from providing young people with the basic skills and knowledge they need for working life at one end of the continuum, to the provision of a highly trained and adaptable workforce on which our continuing economic prosperity as a nation depends, at the other.

Local Authorities in England and Wales spend over £2 billion a year (gross) on further education; they employ some 90,000 lecturers to teach in the maintained colleges and polytechnics, and net expenditure after income and grants exceed £1,550 million. The further education sector has something approaching 1.8 million students enrolled in the colleges in England and Wales. This high level of investment

indicates something of the importance attached by society and the government to the maintained F.E. sector.

The environment of further education is, however, beset by changes which contribute to uncertainty.

The main changes in the environment are:

- 1 an uncertain economic outlook;
- 2 near collapse of the traditional apprenticeship system;
- 3 the transfer control of 25% of the Rate Support Grant to the Manpower Services Commission (recently renamed the Training Agency*) from Local Authority (LEA) control.
- 4 the development of the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) under TA control;
- 5 the reduction in numbers of teachers in training leading to the amalgamation and closure of some colleges;
- 6 the demographic trends which between 1980 and 1994 reduce the number of 16-19 year olds in the population by one third.

* Herein referred to as The Training Agency (TA).

These changes will produce demands for further education that

are difficult to forecast and therefore uncertain. Despite the fact that F.E. is beset by change and subject to many and varied pressures it continues to respond to the needs of the nation. (Kedney and Parkes 1985)

The smooth running of the operation in these conditions calls for management, defined as the combination and coordination of all resources used as inputs, in order to secure an output of the kind and at the level demanded and within acceptable levels of cost. Someone has to assume responsibility for the organisation, direction and control of the financial, physical and human resources involved, but this has not in the past been clearly allocated as a straight-forward "management" function.

There is clear evidence that the management function in further education remains under-developed. (ACSET 1985 and DES 1987). The primary task of the college is seen to be the creation of an effective learning environment, the delivery of the curriculum, the assessment, evaluation and development of individuals within the system, and the provision of guidance and counselling to a wide range of people - both staff and students. The maintenance of an effective and caring environment, which can cope with an extraordinary range of the personal requirements, calls (according to the ACSET Report) for more than pedagogical excellence in the staff of the college; it calls for "effective management", which is rarely in evidence.

The ACSET Report (which surveyed management within the F.E. Sector) was critical of the poor standards of management to be found in many of the colleges.

Colleges have traditionally provided facilities for the welfare of students and have quite rightly placed the students' needs at the centre of the educational web, but it is contended that this approach has failed to recognise

- (a) the importance of the academic staff in realising the objectives of the college, and
- (b) failed to meet the needs of the staff.

Whilst the Report itself has been well received and new initiatives have been instigated as a result of its recommendations, e.g. a management development programme for college staffs arranged under the auspices of the Welsh Joint Education Committee, the response from some areas of the educational sector has been to criticise the report for not giving adequate priority to man-management skills (Welsh Joint Education Committee (WJEC) Working Groups Sub-Committee 1985).

Much research into the nature of managerial work, particularly in the commercial sector of the economy, is available. One common feature of it is the emphasis placed on the human element in the process. But in F.E. colleges, by comparison with other facets of college operations (for example the

curriculum) the management of staff is hardly recognized, let alone resourced. When it is suggested to college authorities that the solution to some of their problems might be found in the industrial/commercial sector, their response is one of scepticism (Callaghan 1962, Bennet 1975, Millett 1958). Educational practitioners readily point out that colleges are not like industry and that theories and practices of management that have their origins in the industrial sector are of doubtful relevance. (Jones 1976, Gray and Cunningham 1974).

The approach traditionally adopted to management assumes that staff are themselves able to "manage" and need only to be recruited and selected to ensure that this management occurs; (Handy 1986). This underplays the importance of personnel in a labour intensive industry, in that it assumes that all requirements of influence are covered by initial training prior to employment. The approach to the management of people adopted here is to recognise that all managers are personnel managers in the literal sense, because as Drucker (1955) has pointed out, technical, economic and managerial actions do not produce a single product: this is done by people and "management is the process of getting things done through the agency of people."

Personnel management is concerned with the application of a body of knowledge relating to the management of the human

resource; personnel management is thus seen as providing the specialist knowledge and skill required in the management of the employment relationship. The key to organizational effectiveness and performance is getting people to do things in the right way; this approach recognizes that people bring to work tasks, their own experience, skills and knowledge and that the task of personnel management is to control and direct this behaviour; it also depends upon the assumption that the manager is vitally interested in the way that people behave. There is no doubt that managers depend upon other people to achieve the organisation's objectives and in so doing they are influenced by the behaviour of the people they manage. In all this lies the supposition that effective action depends upon the employees' willingness to work, and the requirement of management to ensure that those conditions are created that stimulate and foster that willingness. It is maintained here that personnel management's contribution in this area will be to provide such expertise that allows the organisation to focus upon the structures and procedures of work that engages the organisational commitment of all staff, thus leading to more effective management.

This thesis explores the possible approaches to the management of human resources in the changing circumstances of the FE sector. It proposes that the effective management of staff is a key problem and considers what contribution the application of a model of personnel management derived from the industrial

context can contribute to its resolution. The most commonly held suppositions as to the nature of personnel management will be explored.

As a labour intensive service it is necessary, if effective and efficient use is to be made of resources, for there to be a strategy for labour. Two possible models will be advanced and outlined, that of

(a) The Personnel Management Model and

(b) The Human Resources Management Model

and the benefits of acceptance of personnel management techniques will be explored.

This will lead to the exposition of a set of proposals relating to the management of people within the organisational context. It will also reveal that there is not one model, but a number of models, that depend for their articulation upon the context of the organisation. What emerges is a set of theories, concepts and practices that purport to offer a solution within the particular industrial/commercial context.

Advice on how this traditional approach might be modified to meet the situation of the FE college in its new conditions, draws heavily on these industrial/commercial models. These are thought to have relevance because the general thrust of recent changes is to give the colleges greater autonomy in

meeting competitive market conditions of a less protected and more market-exposed kind.

The possibility of the application of these theories, concepts and practices derived from industry, to the educational environment will therefore be examined. As part of that process the similarities and differences that exist between the two systems will be evaluated, and in the process the salient features of the F.E. system will be outlined. The suitability of a set of proposals derived from the industrial/commercial environment will be examined for relevance to further education.

In order to explore these issues and come to a conclusion about the manner in which the F.E. college might address the labour control question, it is necessary

- (a) to outline the reasons why a new strategy of labour control might be necessary in this context; this is done in Chapter 1.
- (b) to examine the main models which present themselves for this purpose; this is done in Chapter 2.
- (c) to outline the nature of and the main pressures upon the F.E. college at the present time; this is covered in Chapter 3.

- (d) to examine the main managerial requirements made upon the college, expressed in terms which are largely derived from more commercial organisational experience; as in Chapter 4.
- (e) to consider, in the light of the current debate, whether the nature of the F.E. situation is sufficiently like the industro- commercial setting to allow a ready transfer of one or other of the main models; as in Chapter 5.
- (f) to evolve on the basis of this evidence and argument a possible framework for the improvement of the efficiency of the F.E. college by a more appropriate managerial approach to the problems presented.

CHAPTER I

The Need for a New Strategy

If it can be taken as axiomatic that major changes in the demands generated in an organisation's environment focus close attention within the organisation upon the kind of strategic response which it should make to accommodate, or adapt to, then the changes in the college environment (to be reviewed later) can be expected to require local (college) management to engage in corporate planning, setting their own objectives in the light of their strengths and weaknesses, and economizing the use of resources in order to secure sufficient surpluses from their operations to continue in their delivery role. This is intended to produce more cost effective provision.

Pressures for cost-effective educational provision have come from two quarters - the Training Agency and the Audit Commission.

The Training Agency has sought to impact on the system by controlling one of the major inputs, money. The Audit Commission (1985) has focussed upon a need "to improve the economy, efficiency and effectiveness with which (colleges) use resources".

Staff Effectiveness

The current vogue banner in education is "value for money"

and great interest is being generated in the twin objectives of efficiency and effectiveness. The Audit Commission's Report, WRNAFE requirements and recently the Joint Efficiency Study (JES 1987), have required college management to look carefully at suitable measures to apply to further education to measure its cost effectiveness. The pursuit of efficiency however, is not solely about saving money, it is about

"helping institutions and individuals to achieve more of what they would achieve with the money that is available". (Higher Education: Meeting the Challenge 1987). (p 22)

The White Paper considers that quality can be enhanced by achieving better teaching through staff training, development and appraisal, and that efficiency can be increased by improvements in institutional management, changes in the management of the system and the development and use of performance indicators. Efficiency then would seem to depend upon the skill and commitment of individuals at all levels within the college system, and the objective is to make the college more effective through making its individual members more effective.

A basic assumption underlying this investigation is that if colleges are organised in such a way as to release the full potential of the academic staff, then students will learn more effectively. It is acknowledged that schools and colleges must be prepared to create an environment that facilitates the maximum possibilities for the self-actualisation of the students.

However, when it comes to managing the staff no such objective is clearly defined, and so staff are denied an opportunity for self-actualisation. Many colleges have student counsellors and well-defined structures of course-tutors who look to the pastoral welfare of the students, but few if any colleges can parallel that provision for staff. Support for the inter-dependence between classroom learning and an organisational climate that is supportive of staff can be found in Halpin (1967). He maintains that improving the organisational climate for learning depends upon improving the organisational climate of the college. Friction between staff, poor industrial relations, low morale, a feeling of powerlessness and alienation, cannot be kept out of the lecture room; they have potent effects on what lecturers do, how staff relate to students, as well as on student achievement.

The survival of the college then sees the emergence of an important objective, the attraction and retention of teachers and the faithful performance of their inter-related role activities. Belasco and Alutto (1972) see levels of teacher satisfaction as inexorably linked with organisational success and further that educational organisations must create the conditions which enhance the probability of high satisfaction levels among their teaching personnel. The development of appropriate personnel policies and practices, it is suggested, is one strand in the complicated web of human inter-action within the college. Attention to the human side

of enterprise would then entail looking at the needs and expectations of individual organisational members, a crucial concern of any organisation. Indeed, the focus of job satisfaction, and thus effectiveness can be viewed as a prerequisite for fulfilling student needs.

If we accept the statement that for both humanistic and organisational reasons, educational institutions must create the conditions which enhance the probability of high satisfaction levels among the teaching staff, then a primary task of the manager concerned with the performance of staff must be to create those conditions of work where the needs of the individual can be satisfied. Sergiovanni (1967) maintains in this context, that as well, sources of job satisfaction can be over-looked. Supervisory behaviour, inter-personal relationships and other factors relating to the conditions of work are necessary components in promoting an environment which will enhance job satisfaction. Teachers whose energies are taxed in coping with sources of job dissatisfaction will be distracted from pursuing those aspects of work that lead to satisfaction. Sergiovanni researching those factors that affect teacher satisfaction/dissatisfaction, concluded that teachers derive most satisfaction from work-centred activity, but low attitudes and high levels of dissatisfaction tended to focus on the conditions of work.

Management's task is to create those conditions which will foster satisfaction in relation to work conditions. Staff

must be given opportunities for developing professional skills, and greater involvement in participational decision-making.

Evidence of pressures by staff for greater involvement in their work conditions can be found in commentators on the role of industrial relations in education. Bain (1970) seeks to justify the growth of trade union attitudes amongst teachers as being due, not as stated by Coates (1972) as an attempt to obtain economic benefits, (although important and the traditional role of trade unions), but more importantly that trade unions seek to control more effectively their work situation. Support for the latter can be found in Flanders (1968), who sees a two-fold justification for the rise in unionateness; he sees it as a means of regulating the labour-market, but more importantly as a means to participate

"..... as directly as possible in the making and administration of the rules and decisions underlying the rules which determine the destiny of workers".(Flanders 1968) (p 2)

The significance of this developing unionateness is that managers, at all levels, need to be increasingly aware of the needs, attitudes and potential grievances of the employees for whom they are responsible, as it can profoundly affect levels of satisfaction and thus effective performance.

The basis of management is a set of general assumptions about people in organisations, and it would appear that whatever model of management you adopt, whether it be Herzberg

(1968), Maslow (1943), MacGregor (1960), Blake (1964), Reddin (1970) or Vroom (1964) each one stresses the value of the human resource and the creation of those conditions of work that release the creative talent of people and allows them to be truly effective. The conclusion reached in East's (1987) recent survey of the personnel function in further education confirms that the effective contribution of all staff would be enhanced and job satisfaction increased if some form of personnel management was to exist in the college and that it was preferable for it to be allied to an effective personnel policy.

Organisational Commitment - an additional dimension

In looking at the internal management of colleges the NAB Report (1987) (although their report is based on the Public Sector Higher Education Colleges, it applies equally to colleges of further education), outlined some of the features of what they considered a well-managed institution to be. Specifically they include among their list of characteristics in the well-managed college:

- * a staff committed to the needs of students and the aims of the college
- * an effective and well-informed leadership
- * managers with powers to act effectively, especially on recruitment and motivation of staff, and if necessary disciplining and dismissal of staff.
- * effective monitoring of managerial and institutional performance.

Their evidence confirmed that staff work best if they are

committed to the college. The role of management in the process is to try and seek that balance between the various elements of the educational process to achieve the optimum effectiveness of the institution. Staff commitment is then seen to be vital because institutional success depends upon their involvement and identification with the main aims and objectives of the college.

Identifying with the organisation is a distinct social behaviour which is one of the conditions for organisational survival, since it affects job performance. Organisational commitment itself is primarily determined by general satisfaction with the job, organisation and profession. Sheldon (1971) defines commitment as "an attitude or orientation towards the organisation which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organisation". (p 143) Commitment will involve, according to Sheldon, a positive evaluation and an interest to work towards the goal of the organisation.

The concept of commitment is a complex one dependent upon a number of factors that themselves can have varying importance to the individual over time - variables such as length of service, role conflict, sex, marital status, inter-personal trust, authoritarianism, and according to Grusky (1966) intentions to seek advanced education. Becker (1960) approaches the concept from a socio-psychological viewpoint maintaining that consistency of behaviour is part of a stable structure of personal needs; his approach predicts that

"individuals have stable needs and consistently act so as to maximise the possibility of satisfying them". (p 33). Lee (1971) approaches the concept from the two dimensions of personal and job variables, and he maintains that they cannot be analysed separately.

Whatever approach is used to try and account for the concept, the basic question of concern to the practising manager remains - "Is it necessary for managers to be concerned with the commitment of employees?" Lee's answer would be strongly affirmative in that

"The analysis of organisational identification has important managerial implications and certainly management must be concerned with employees organisational identification".
(Lee 1971) (p225)

The significance for management is that it behoves them to pay attention to those aspects of staff management that engenders commitment. Management therefore needs to adopt procedures and policies that seek to maximise the commitment of its work-force, it being accepted that commitment to the employing organisation is desirable because it increases the employee's desire to achieve the goals of the employing organisation. Effective management is then perceived as creating an environment that encourages organisational commitment, that satisfies personal and job needs, and creates a benign, co-operative and friendly environment, free from tensions. Conversely poor management makes work less

effective and hence acts as a deterrent to effort and co-operation, resulting in low staff morale, thus undermining efficiency, leading to staff wastage and adversely affecting student relations.

The importance of staff-commitment cannot be over-emphasised, as a factor in securing college efficiency. The crucial role that staff have in helping to realise the college objectives has been highlighted.

But commitment does not arise automatically, it has to be created by deliberate organisation and management. The very basis of management lies in the accomplishment of organisational goals by working with and through the people that constitute the organisation. Industry has hitherto tackled this problem by developing personnel management.

As part of the variety of responses available to cope with the pressures for change, colleges have increasingly looked to the quality of management within the college, in the belief that the performance of management is vital to the realisation of college objectives. As part of the strategy of survival the quality of management and management strategies to cope with pressure and change, are put under examination.

Neglect of Labour Strategy

There is much in the educational literature to indicate that in any consideration of the management of an organisation the management of its total resources, physical financial and human is very important. The suggestion has been made earlier, that colleges have traditionally concentrated on the first two, yet neglected the third.

A fundamental principle of human resource management (Armstrong 1987) is that human resources are the most important assets an organisation has and the effective management of this resource is the key to success. Yet, the prevailing hierarchy of values operated by college managements, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt, (1971) places the college, its growth and survival first, the demands of the local community and broader society second, and the individual member of staff and his/her welfare third, Enlightened supervision would invert these values and place the highest priority on the individual.

"Indeed, each of us needs to be aware of and concerned about our assumptions, values and beliefs regarding the nature of work, the nature of man and how these relate to the functions of schools (colleges) in our society."

"..... A principal who holds growth for students but denies growth opportunities for teachers inadvertently denies them to students. We believe that teachers will withhold from students that which schools (colleges) withhold from teachers". (Sergiovanni and Starratt) (p 81)

In the further education system, the management of the human resource remains neglected. East's (1987) survey confirms that educational managers are not sufficiently trained in personnel matters. Indeed, he commented that it is ironical that many colleges possessed a high level of academic ability and knowledge in the personnel management field, but this knowledge was rarely put to practical use within the college itself. As a broad generalisation, business and industry, by contrast have developed policies towards human resource management that seek to enhance human productivity, yet preserve the quality of working life. How to achieve organisational health and organisational commitment is the key question that Thomas (1970) sees as the counter to alienation in the workplace, as paying

"..... greater attention to the needs and problems of the individual, of the primary working group and the extent to which such primary working groups are informed of the reasons for development". (Thomas) (p 2)

The fact is that college management has failed to appreciate the link between high levels of staff morale and policies and procedures that promote it. Traditionally the curriculum has occupied a dominant place in the minds of college management and they have failed to appreciate that the success of the college is in direct proportion to the quality of its staff. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) underline, in considering value assumptions and decision-making, the central theme that the individual should be at the centre of the organisation and the value systems must reflect a concern for people. The

business philosophy that stresses the importance of the human resource to the achievement of company objectives and one that stresses the aim to get all employees involved in the achievement of company objectives and plans, finds support in the work of writers such as Drucker (1955), Maslow (1943), Agyris (1964) and Herzberg (1966). The dominant emphasis of the common interests of employer and employed in the success of the business is stressed. Involving the employee in the success of the business, it is maintained will release a massive potential of initiative and commitment within the workforce. Acceptance by management of the need consciously and continuously to better the quality of working life, it is suggested, will lead to increased motivation and improved results by employees.

The contrast in education is very marked. Not only is there no formalised personnel role, but traditionally educational establishments have appointed teachers with no managerial qualifications as principals/managers. Derr and Delong (1982) maintain that

"..... whatever the gains from this approach, many educational administrators seem outdated or untrained for some of their functions". (Derr Delong 1982) (p 134)

Katz (1955) highlights the importance of man-management when in formulating a strategy that would be useful in the selection and development of managers, outlines an approach that highlights, not what managers are, but what they do - "the kinds of skills they exhibit in carrying out their jobs

effectively". (p 34). This approach rests on three developable skills which are related, yet may be examined separately. For him, successful management activity rests on three basic skills (i) technical, defined as working with things (ii) human, primarily concerned with working with people, and (iii) conceptual, involving an appreciation of a complete overview of the total workings of the organisation. Technical skills are low level, conceptual a higher level skill, but human skills occur at all levels, involving as they do the ability to work with others. Katz' contribution places the effective management of people at the centre of the management process pervading as it does all levels, and it gives further support to the centrality of man-management within the educational process.

A recognition of the importance of the welfare and motivation of the individual finds its expression in the role of the personnel manager in industry. Business and industry are aware of the growing requirement to focus upon the needs of the individual and their importance to the successful accomplishment of company objectives. Industry has moved to a consideration of not only the quantity of personnel management, but also the quality. The Wall Street Journal reported on the 16 October 1979, the result of a survey of two thousand executives in America who confirmed that 40% of them spend about twenty hours a week on personnel matters (up from 25% who reported that involvement during the previous five years). The response over the years has been to elevate the importance of the personnel manager.

Further education colleges are organisations which have to survive in an environment characterized by changing demands upon the services they provide. Because of the manner of their funding and control, they are being pressured into pursuing effectiveness and efficiency goals more assiduously. By their nature, further education colleges are labour-intensive operations, and their workers may be characterised as essentially professional in the orientations they bring to their work.

The question then is raised as to how best might the college, as a system surviving in an environment, adapt to the new circumstances, and within this, whether the F.E. system can adopt a model of personnel management derived from industry.

CHAPTER 2

SPECIALISM VERSUS GENERALISM

The industro-commercial practice of personnel management offers two models for consideration, namely-

- * specialist personnel management
- * generalist human resource management.

A commercial management response of the traditional kind, places the emphasis on the development of a greater degree of management role specialisation than found hitherto in colleges; this as it impinges on the central task of controlling human resources will be identified as the personnel management approach, and an outline is set out below.

THE NATURE AND FUNCTION OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

Personnel Management - A Definition

A good starting point for the British view is to be found in the definition arrived at by the Institute of Personnel Management. The IPM considered that

"Personnel Management is a responsibility of all those who manage people, as well as being a description of the work of those who are employed as specialists. It is that part of management which is concerned with people at work and with their relationships within an enterprise. It applies not only to industry and commerce but to all fields of employment. Personnel management aims to achieve both efficiency and justice, neither of which can be pursued successfully without the other. It seeks to bring together and develop into an effective organisation the men and women who make up an enterprise, enabling each to make his own best contribution to its success both as an individual and as a member of a working group. It seeks to provide fair terms and conditions of employment, and satisfying work for those employed". (IPM 1963)

From the above definition a number of significant features can be observed.

Firstly, personnel management as defined above deals with what the organisation needs to do about one of its key resources - people. The central task of management is seen as the effective co-ordination and utilisation of available human and non-human resources to achieve its aims. All managers might be said then to qualify as personnel managers in that they manage people as part of their job. Whatever managers achieve, they achieve through the people they manage. Fowler (1975) recognises this commonality in all managers when he observed that

"Subordinate staff have to be selected, deployed, instructed, directed, consulted, advised, encouraged and motivated. Staff problems can arise in all types of work staff join trade unions The law imposes constraints on managers' employment decisions".(Fowler 1975) (p 30)

The organisation of human effort then becomes a central responsibility of all managers and

"..... the reasonable satisfaction of human needs is an inescapable function of management and a necessary prelude to production efficiency". (Moxon 1966) (p 237)

Secondly, personnel management, as defined above, is to be found in all organisations, whether they are "mutual benefit, service or commonweal" (Blau and Scott 1963). There is no reason therefore to exclude educational establishments.

Thirdly, personnel management is concerned with the just treatment of individuals as employees. This motivation might very well have had its origins in the early welfare role, out of which the role of the personnel manager has emerged historically. The personnel manager's job is therefore seen to be different from other management jobs in that he is seen to act in the interests of the employees, to serve the interest of his employer and also to reflect the interests of society. Linked with this concept of fairness and equity in the IPM definition is the further suggestion that included in the task of personnel management is a concern to help achieve the organisation's productivity goals. It is in the area of organisational effectiveness, helping to meet the objectives of the firm, that the personnel manager becomes a manager himself, in the true sense of the word

"..... the objectives of personnel management become those of developing and recommending strategies and procedures that will contribute to the organisation's productivity goals". (Miner 1977) (p 4)

"..... personnel managers carry out a unique set of activities having to do with the utilisation of human resources, this work is done with a view to accomplishing exactly the same objective as is the work of other managers". (Miner 1977) (p 7)

The growth of awareness of the importance of the human element and its vital contribution to production efficiency sees the rise of importance of the personnel function as a separate specialism.

The definition of personnel management is problematical because neither writers on the subject nor practitioners, can agree totally as to what personnel management is. Thomason (1975) writing on the British perspective maintains that

"We must accept also the way it (personnel management) is construed and organised in practice varies appreciably"

and that

"..... an examination of how the function is organised and discharged in any two organisations might well lead the examiner to conclude that there is very little consensus present". (Thomason 1975) (p 7)

An examination of the views of prominent writers and practitioners reveals however, that this lack of consensus is in part due to the differing ways in which the personnel

function is perceived and the importance attributed to it in the industrial context. Thomason sees its existence as a separate specialist function being dependent upon the size of the organisation and whether there is a high degree of division of managerial labour in that organisation

"..... specialist personnel managers are usually to be found in the larger undertakings". (Thomason 1975) (p 6)

Support for the above is found in the research findings of Daniel (1983) who concludes that despite the seeming growth of importance of personnel management in the 1970's, the function is still a part-time responsibility for non-specialists in many parts of British industry.

"By far the strongest single influence upon whether establishments had personnel specialists was the number of people employed at the work place". (Daniel 1983) (p 25)

These differing perspectives that exist are the result of the historical origins of the function, the organisation culture, the ideology of senior management, the size of the firm, geographical spread, the technology in use, and equally important, the expectations that a company demands of its personnel function. Differing organisational contexts and expectations then shape the assessment and lead to the formulation of different models. Tyson (1985) conceives that

there are indeed

"..... different models of personnel management in different organisational contexts and that the assessment of personnel management is conditioned by the model adopted".
(Tyson 1985) (p 22)

Research evidence that the function is diverse and dependent upon a corporate strategy can be found in the work of Sisson and Scullion (1985). They surveyed the management of industrial relations and personnel in the largest 100 UK private sector companies to find out what has been happening to the corporate personnel department. Anecdotal evidence had indicated that there had been a substantial down grading of corporate personnel departments in large companies. They found a variety of situations and a similar variety in the nature of work, but not uniformity.

This lack of consensus has lead personnel management as a profession to periodically examine its role. A series of articles published in 1982/3 in "Personnel Management" invited chief executives in large forward-looking British firms to describe how they saw the personnel function. Whilst these articles are not essentially negative in attitude, they are indicative of that crisis of confidence that personnel management as a profession seems to be prone to. Whilst there are differing conceptions of personnel management, what is not in doubt is that it is a recognised management function that exists in British industry. Cowan (1988) writing on the 75th Anniversary of the Institute of

Personnel Management sees personnel management as a profession

"born, developed and securely established".

and the fact remains that

"no serious discussion of management today can ignore the role of personnel management and its contribution to the business". (Cowan 1988) (p 33)

Personnel management has emerged as a specialism which pays special attention to the satisfaction of human needs within and without the organisation. However, while stressing the advice and help that other managers can receive from personnel, it is worthwhile noting the basic fact that every manager retains personnel responsibility for managing his subordinates

".....managing people is the very heart and essence of being a manager"

and indeed it is not

"..... the personnel manager's job to manage people but to provide the specialist knowledge of services that can assist the management team to make effective use of the human resources - people - of the organisation". (Yoder 1970) (p 8)

Personnel Management - Objectives, Policies, Activities

(i) Objectives - At the very heart of personnel management is the implied objective of the maximisation of the human resources to the benefit of the organisation. The starting

point for personnel management within the organisation is then a set of objectives that sets out what the organisation aims to do about the people it employs. Personnel objectives will depend upon the organisational context and might vary from firm to firm depending upon the management philosophy, type of organisation, and the political climate prevailing at that time. There are no universal objectives written upon tablets of stone. The overall aim of personnel management is to make an effective contribution to the objectives of the organisation and to the fulfilment of its social responsibilities, in such areas as job satisfaction, working conditions, equality of opportunities, security and continuity of employment and adequate reward for their contribution.

(ii) Policies - The objectives of the organisation are then a set of goals or ends. They are what the organisation wishes to achieve; the policies are a means to those ends. Brewster and Richbell (1982) have defined personnel policies as

"a set of proposals and acts that act as a reference point for managers in their dealings with employees". (Brewster and Richbell 1982) (p 34)

Personnel policies then, when formulated, should provide a set of guidelines to assist managers in their primary task - that of managing people for effective and efficient performance of their duties.

All organisations have personnel policies in that there are certain responses that management makes when confronted with certain personnel problems. The question in most firms is "Should these policies be formalised?" Brewster and Richbell (1982) from their researches defined two kinds of personnel policy - (i) The 'espoused policy', that is the collection of proposals, objectives and standards that top management holds, or says it holds for establishing the organisation's approach to its employees - usually the more formal written aspects of policy. (ii) The 'operational policy', defined as the line management's interpretation, or ordering of policy, or "the actions likely to bring the results they perceive their senior managers are wanting most", (Brewster and Richbell 1982). Whether policies are 'espoused' or 'operational', there would seem to be advantages in having written policies leading to understanding through all levels of the enterprise and consistency of treatment of all employees.

Providing always that such policies are understood by the implementers, those policies must take cognizance of the pressures and demands made upon the implementers, and must be seen to be workable and acceptable.

Actual policies will of course depend upon the organisational context.

(iii) Activities - It has been stated that personnel management is not a separate function of management, but rather the responsibility of all those who manage people. There are, however, a set of specific personnel activities that are carried out in organisations which use skills, knowledge, techniques and procedures and these are influenced by the function of the organisation and how people behave.

These activities are carried out by all managers - the role of the personnel specialist is one of providing advice, guidance and help to the line manager.

These activities for convenience can be grouped under three headings; employee resourcing, employee development, employee relations, but in reality they are inter-dependent and related, (not discrete and separate). (An expansion of these headings can be found in Armstrong (1984 p 17-20) and a tabulated expansion in (Appendix 6.)

THE ROLE OF PERSONNEL IN INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

From what has been said earlier the role of the personnel specialist is seen to be one of trying to ensure the optimum performance of the human factors in the enterprise in the areas of productivity and profitability. Personnel

management is not seen as a fringe activity but rather a management activity that provides an essential contribution to the effective management of the enterprise. How is that role carried out in practice? Essentially three strands are perceptible.

(i) Service Role - Personnel managers provide specific services to line management, especially in the fields of employment, recruitment and selection, training, salary administration, staff records and health and safety. Many companies see the advantage in financial terms to them of centralising these administrative functions in one department, and many line managers are pleased to be relieved of these aspects of administration.

(ii) Advisory Role - Provides advice on personnel policies, procedures and methods, and provides advice on the approach that should be adopted to deal with personnel and industrial relations problems. The personnel function would be active in policy formulation to guide managers in those areas of policy mentioned earlier - social responsibility, employment, pay, promotion, training and industrial relations. In a working environment that is subject to constant and dramatic change the personnel manager must be able to advise on those aspects of change that directly influence the performance of employees in the company. The personnel function should be constantly monitoring the level of employees' morale,

motivation, commitment to the employing organisation and general levels of satisfaction, looking at such indicators as absentee level, labour turnover, accidents, disputes, grievances, and productivity.

Personnel managers should be in a position to advise senior management on appropriate procedures and systems for the approval of line management in the following important areas:

- * manpower planning
- * recruitment
- * employment
- * salary administration
- * employment benefit
- * training
- * performance appraisal
- * wages and payment systems
- * industrial relations
- * consultation
- * communications
- * health and safety
- * welfare

Guidance Role - The guidance role involves communicating agreed policies and procedures to line managers, and when necessary to provide guidance to managers on their implementation. This is probably the most delicate area of the personnel specialists tasks because it must be seen to be

guidance, not usurpation of the authority of the line manager. However, the legitimate function of the personnel specialist is to see that policies are properly carried out in the same way that the finance section controls budgets.

Such controls as personnel exercise are in the following principal areas:

- * contracts and conditions of employment
- * rates of pay
- * agreed procedures eg discipline, grievance, promotion
- * recruitment
- * legal requirements eg health and safety, equality, sex discrimination.

The Line and Staff Conflict

In the execution of its role, personnel management is sometimes seen to be in conflict with other managers. All managers are concerned with the management of people, not just personnel managers but it is part of personnel's function to alert line managers to the human implications of what is happening to the organisation. Armstrong (1984) sees the role as providing a specialist service within the organisation; its justification being based upon the desirability of "grouping together under a functional head,

expertise which is unlikely to be shared equally amongst line managers". (p 21)

The concept of line and staff then has developed out of the growth of large organisations and their adaptation to acquire the advantages of specialised services, while at the same time retaining the older concept of a line authority - a hierarchical structure. The growth in organisations themselves has brought new and additional problems for line managers; changes in industrial society; the impact of new technology and its implications for working practices; changes in the nature of the composition of the labour market; legislation and government intervention; makes it very difficult for the line manager to cope without specialised help. Such 'help' has usually come from the 'staff' part of the line and staff organisation and so we have seen the development of such specialist staff functions as work study, production planning, marketing and personnel. The debate over the precise relationship between line and the staff role of the personnel adviser stems no doubt from the fact that all managers are concerned with people and most feel that they are 'expert' in this field. Coupled with the early welfare role of the personnel manager, one can well understand how the conflict between line and staff personnel came into being. However, environmental pressures, and the pressures outlined above, have lead the personnel manager away from his earlier welfare role to one where a body of

specialised knowledge and techniques that are personnel's own, has been developed. The IPM has recognised this dilemma and tried to resolve it by asserting its professional status. (Parker 1983 and Cowan 1988)

Over the years an executive function, associated with a control function, has emerged as another element to complicate the relationship between line and staff. The executive role exists in those organisation who recognise that personnel has expertise in certain areas that are of value to the realisation of company objectives - expertise in such areas as an understanding of and application of the behavioural sciences, performance assessment, job evaluation and wage payment systems, counselling skills and negotiation, recruitment and selection, learning theories, organisation theory and organisation development, manpower planning. Other levels of management would have knowlege in those areas, but all of the above must be found in one person - the personnel specialist.

Human Resource Management--the alternative model

Human resource management (HRM) represents a different approach to the management of people within the organisation - it represents an alternative view to the traditional concept of personnel management - involving as it does a changed perception of the individual at work and the

employment relationship. Briefly summarised, traditional personnel management represents a management function that has developed as a mediating role. To some degree, it lies between the management and the workforce. Thomason (1981) expresses this idea thus:

"Miller argues that the personnel management role is different from other staff jobs in that it has to serve not only the employer, but also act in the interests of employees as individual human beings, and by extension, the interests of the personnel management role which provides a place for the goals and aspirations of workers For him, the function of personnel administration is concerned with 'organising and treating individuals at work so that they will get the greatest possible realisation of their intrinsic abilities thus attaining maximum efficiency for themselves and their group and thereby, giving to the concern of which they are part, its determining competitive advantage and its optimum results'". (Thomason 1981) (p 38)

HRM however, represents a more comprehensive approach to the organisation of people at work. Defined by Torrington and Hall (1987), HRM is seen as being directed

"..... mainly at management's needs for human resources (not necessarily employees) to be provided and deployed". (Torrington and Hall 1987) (p 14)

Tyson and Fell (1986) see the personnel function as being re-defined and expanded from the role of being a control-orientated supplier of labour

"..... to an overall human resource planning development and utilisation agency". (Tyson and Fell 1986)

that

"..... has at its starting point the integration and co-ordination of people planning with overall strategy formulation and corporate planning".(Tyson and Fell) (p 135)

Fowler (1987) picks up the importance of the common interests of the employer and employed in the success of the business and stresses that HRM tries to integrate every aspect of employee management with the general business management of the organisation, unifying the interests of the employer and employed.

"HRM releases a massive potential of initiative and commitment within the workforce".(Fowler 1987) (p 3)

The above represents fairly generalised statements as to the essence of HRM, but the question is posed as to what are the important elements of HRM and in what ways can the concept be said to be relevant to further education at this time? The "bare bones" of the model that follows is derived from David Guest's article in "Personnel Management" (1989), and Guest (1987).

Guest (1987) identifies four main components of HRM - human resource management policy goals, policies, organisational outcomes, and 'the cement' that binds the system.

HRM policy goals are broken down by Guest into four sub-

divisions that echo areas of change and desirable goals that have been highlighted earlier in this study. Both Armstrong and Guest consider that strategic integration is important to the organisation. Integration is conceived as the members of the organisation working together for a common purpose and further that the personnel policies and procedures of the enterprise are seen to be making a major contribution to the achievement of the corporate objectives and strategic plans of the organisation. The second policy goal is listed as employee commitment, a concept that has been highlighted earlier as a desirable and positive outcome. Commitment for Guest is the binding of the employee to the organisation in order that behavioural commitment to high performance is secured. The concept of flexibility stresses the desirability of a college that is adaptive and receptive to innovation. A feature of contemporary society that is all pervasive is the pace and nature of change and any organisation that is not prepared to change and to take on board new ideas very soon becomes moribund. A great deal has been made of the large number of changes emanating from many different sources that colleges of further education are subjected to. If HRM offers flexibility in the managing of the workforce, then it is one element that is worthwhile embracing. The fourth policy goal coincides with another positive activity that colleges in the contemporary setting are being exhorted to embrace, the desirable outcome of high quality, of services, goals and staff. Guest further

maintains that any organisation "preaching quality must practice it in the management of its employees". (p 515) Colleges are being encouraged to be more responsive to the needs of industry, this exhortation recognising that UK Ltd., has to compete effectively in world markets to ensure its economic survival, and that survival depends upon the skills and talents which its workforce possesses. The role for the colleges is that they must continue to develop the correct skills by providing the right product. A responsive approach sees the pro-active college embracing market research to identify needs and wants: product development to create appropriate courses and programmes: quality control to monitor outcomes, and after-sales service to determine client satisfaction levels. The HRM policy goals above are inter-related and dependent upon the most important asset the college has, its human resources and their effective management.

HRM policy goals are achieved through the conventional techniques of personnel management. The typical personnel activities, such as organisational/job design, recruiting, selection, appraisal, training, management development, to list a few, were outlined earlier , and they can exist alongside HRM in the organisation. The essential difference between the two is that HRM represents a more comprehensive approach to the organisation of people at work that has "re-defined and expanded the role from being a control-

orientated supplier of labour to an overall human resource planning, development and utilisation agency" (Tyson and Fell 1986). The approach sees the integration and co-ordination of people planning with the overall strategic and corporate planning of the organisation, in other words, it represents a holistic view wherein all activities are interlocked to achieve the organisational objectives.

The declared organisational outcomes of the HRM approach of high-job performance, problem-solving, change, innovation, cost-effectiveness, and low turn-over, absence and grievance, would go some way to helping to improve the poor standard of management that has been highlighted in colleges. Certainly we shall return to the cost-effective implications of this approach later, when an attempt is made to justify an HRM inclusion by referring to the benefits of this approach.

Guest itemises three important components that it would appear are necessary to ensure the success of HRM. They are; support from the key leadership, a supportive culture, and a conscious strategy for the effective utilisation of the human resources of the organisation - these he perceives as providing "the cement" that binds the organisation into a coherent whole.

HRM is based upon the common interests of the employer and the employed in the success of the business, thus releasing a

massive potential for initiative and commitment within the college. HRM sees people as the key resource to be husbanded, developed and regarded as its source of creative energy. This requires that a pre-requisite of management is that it secures good conditions - a high quality of working life- thereby increasing motivation and making it possible to realise the college's objectives more fully. The HRM model presupposes a commonality, a mutuality of interest on the part of management and staff.

The idea of mutuality finds support in writers commenting on the personnel scene today - (Armstrong 1984, Parker 1983 and Harvey-Jones 1982). The concept of mutuality is held by some commentators as the factor that partly explains the success and competitive triumphs of the Japanese (Pascale and Athos 1981). The Japanese have been able to create powerful organisational cultures from which are derived shared values between workers and management. The integration of the workers in the sense of getting them all working together with a common purpose is an important aim of HRM, but this does not overlook the fact that organisations in reality are pluralist societies, and it does not seek to minimise the role of trade unions in the work-place. Indeed, recent history has revealed a new militancy among the teaching professions and their adoption of trade union practices to secure changes in conditions of service and pay.

Yet HRM as outlined so far is essentially unitarist and individualistic in its focus. The 'unitary'-'pluralist' view of organisations has been set down by Fox (1966). The 'unitary' view emphasises the sense of togetherness, common goals and objectives, and the legitimacy of management. Trade unions are seen as troublemakers seeking to ferment confrontation with management. The 'pluralist' view on the other hand, sees labour and management with different aims and objectives, some conflicting, others congruent with each group able to hurt the other. Trade unions are seen as legitimate representatives of employees whose role includes the resolution of problems by compromise and bargaining.

Adopting a strategic HRM approach marginalises the role of industrial relations and trade unions. Hitherto, industrial relations management in the UK has been characterised by the imposition of short-term solutions on critical business decisions - "fire-fighting". Industrial disputes have arisen as an unanticipated consequence of a business decision that has failed to take into account the consequences of that decision on employee reactions. As a result, adverse employee reactions are seen as essentially "operational difficulties" (Winkler 1974), something like a machine breakdown. Employees are viewed very much as if they are indeed machines, to be maintained, and if they break down, then maintenance is at fault! This attitude is further compounded by a reluctance to discuss and communicate

strategic issues, and even when management wish to discuss issues the prevailing "collective bargaining" machinery precludes the involvement of employees other than trade unionists. The final point concerns the role of the company directors. They are responsible for determining the main objectives of the firm. We would expect therefore that industrial relations would be of direct interest to them. Ironically, their attitude towards industrial relations is according to the findings of Fidler (1981) and Winkler (1974) one of "unconcern". A move to HRM with its emphasis on employee involvement would therefore herald a shift from the dominant tradition of UK industrial relations, wherein management recognises the trade unions and negotiates with them, but makes no attempt to tell them about business realities, to persuading them to accept changes that managers perceived as necessary. The unitary view stresses the legitimacy of management as overriding the claims of trade unions.

It follows from the preceding paragraph, therefore, that trade unions are unnecessary or at best marginal and that industrial relations are not seen as a central activity. Acceptance of this leaves HRM open to the charge that it is manipulative and that the offer of employee involvement must be conditional on the acceptance of managerial definitions of goals, and co-operation in their realisation. The counter to this charge, however, is that the devolution of

responsibility and involvement to the employee can in fact "create a more demanding environment than can imposing rigid rules" (Edwards 1987). (p 497) Management within the HRM model can then be seen to be responding to its environment rather than anticipating the results of its decisions

The HRM model recognises the importance of the organisational culture and its role in determining how the work is carried out in the organisation. Culture is seen in this context as "a system of shared values (what is important) and beliefs (how things work) that interact with a company's people, organisational structures and control systems to produce behavioural norms (the way we do things around here)" - Georgiades (1987). (p 33). The culture of the organisation and the values held, the climate of the organisation and managerial behaviour, all influence the realisation of the corporate objectives. Armstrong (1987) maintains that this culture must be managed. By this he means that the organisational values may need to be changed, or reinforced, or even effort may need to be exerted by management to get them enacted and acted upon.

HRM will be seen as a process that tries to shape and influence the corporate culture and in attempting to achieve this it will use the techniques that are personnel management.

The concept of HRM is a positive one that is seen as a total and integrated approach to the management of all the key resources - including the human element - it takes the personnel function into those areas where the key business decisions are made and presents an opportunity for the personnel specialist to influence those decisions for the greater good of the enterprise. Human Resource Management implies "giving personnel away" to line management (Guest 1986). (p 51). Human Resource Management described as a stereotype would therefore be in its:

Time and planning perspective	- long term, proactive, strategic and integrated.
Psychological contract	- employee commitment
Control systems	- self control
Employee relation	- unitarist, individual and high trust
Preferred structures	- organic, devolved, flexible roles
Roles	- largely integrated into line management
Evaluation criteria	- maximum utilisation (human asset accounting)

(Derived from Guest 1987)

CHAPTER 3

**THE FURTHER EDUCATION SYSTEM - ADMINISTRATIVE FRAMEWORK
AND CONSTRAINTS**

In order to establish the relevance and fit of labour control strategies evolved in commercial organisations to the F.E. sector, we need to consider that sector's main dimensions. It is convenient to do so, using the same kinds of system concepts which have been widely applied there.

To describe a further education college is difficult because it is ever changing. It has been likened to a chameleon (Farmer 1982), whose polymorphous and dynamic characteristics require an element of selectivity if its changing colours are to be reflected in any detail. However, certain relatively static features can be identified and described.

The Legal Framework

The task of the college is given to it, by the legal, fiscal and economic policies of the country. However, it is usually conveyed in vague implied rather than express terms, because the enabling legislation is permissive rather than mandatory. It is for the LEA and the college itself to make the task explicit and more importantly to implement it. The further education system is thus a good example of an ill-

defined mandate by society, based as it is on a shaky legal footing.

The legal basis for further education was laid down in the 1944 Education Act (Sections 7, 41 and 42 - see Appendix 1). Local authorities were charged with the duty of providing

"..... a statutory system of public education (which) shall be organised in three progressive stages to be known as, primary education, secondary education, and further education". (1944 Education Act)

This ensured a duality of control (which is more fully examined in the following section). The Act and the subsequent amending acts have created a framework in which the Secretary of State for Education and Science is given overall responsibility for all education in England, and since 1978, the Secretary of State for Wales carries a similar responsibility for Wales. The day to day running of the education service is, however, the responsibility of the Local Education Authorities (LEAs). This has led to the system being described as "a national system locally administered" (Cantor and Roberts 1969), (p 29) with the Department of Education and Science (DES) as the major partner. It also left further education with little definition.

Strictly speaking, further education is all education which

takes place beyond compulsory school-leaving age; this would seem to indicate that all who stayed in school beyond the compulsory leaving age would fall within the definition of further education. Sixth form pupils are however, separately covered by section 114 of the Act, so that what in fact was sanctioned was dual provision in schools and further education, for those above the age of compulsory school attendance, but below the age of nineteen. The interpretation and implementation of the Act has generally made a distinction between provision for the 16-19 year olds in secondary schools and that made in further education. Provision of post-16 education in secondary schools has been mandatory upon the LEA's whereas provision of further education was left to their discretion.

The once generally accepted view was that the colleges existed for 'technical' education and were concerned with 'vocational education' and schools were 'general' and without vocational direction. Trends within secondary and further education over the past years have progressively blurred these distinctions. Colleges of further education now commonly offer courses of a general education content, for example GCSE and A levels, whilst secondary schools have established pre-vocational courses certificated by the Royal Society of Arts (RSA), City and Guilds (C&G) and the Business and Technical Education Council (BTEC), either independently, or in collaboration with a college of further education.

Further blurring occurred when in 1980 the Department of Education and Science (DES) allowed unemployed young people to attend school part-time under the 21 hour rule, whilst retaining their rights to unemployment benefit allowances.

The growth of the tertiary colleges - single institutions containing all the 16-19 year olds seeking full time education - represents the application of the comprehensive principle into post-compulsory education. The National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER 1980) has described this as "a synthesis of the best of both systems", but it cuts across the traditional definition of the FE College.

Further education also overlaps the higher education sector in that it includes the polytechnics and colleges of higher education. It is significant that the 1966 White Paper was subtitled "Higher Education in the Further Education System".

Also included under the umbrella of further education is the adult education, or 'evening institute' provision, in which courses of a non-vocational nature are offered. Its roots go back to the Mechanics Institutes of the nineteenth century, but the 1944 Act placed a duty upon local authorities to provide for "leisure-time activities".

The diversity is further reflected in the variety to be

found in college names.

- * technical colleges
- * colleges of technology
- * colleges of further education
- * colleges and schools of art
- * colleges of agriculture
- * colleges of librarianship
- * national colleges
- * tertiary colleges

The term 'college of further education' is used here to exclude the polytechnics, colleges of higher education and the regional colleges of agriculture, music and librarianship, broadly in accordance with the definition given in the Robbins Report of 1963 as

"..... comprising all institutions (other than universities, colleges of education) providing post-school education within the sphere of the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Education and Science".(Robbins 1963) (p 317)

Current further education provision as categorised in institutional terms may be found in Appendix 3.

Governance

Sections 7, 41 and 42 of the 1944 Education Act taken together imposed a duty on LEA's to secure the provision of adequate facilities for further education in their areas, but Section 41 specifically stated that such provision had to be secured by schemes of further education which had to be approved by the Secretary of State. Section 42 set out how such schemes should be prepared and regulated. After 1944 all LEA's dutifully prepared schemes for approval. However, in time changes occurred and schemes were not always kept up-to-date and the procedure fell into general dis-use. This led to a concern that further education might be 'ultra vires', and a DES working group set up in 1981 concluded that although it had never been tested in the courts, much further education provision was "almost certainly ultra vires".

The Education Reform Act 1988, will bring the further education system within the law, and reduce this element of uncertainty. To make further education 'intra vires', the Government has repealed sections 7, 41 and 42 of the 1944 Education Act, removed the obsolete provisions relating to county colleges. The duty for each LEA to secure the provision of adequate facilities for further education for its area, will however remain. At the same time the new Act has re-defined further, higher and secondary education.

LEA's will retain their duty to secure the availability for their area of providing sufficient secondary schools, but in securing this provision they will be able to take into account such provision as is available in the further education sector. The new Act may at last create more certainty, and it will also transform the system, by allowing certain colleges to become private companies, and others to become increasingly responsible for their own personal and financial management, free from LEA control. The justification for the reforms is based on a belief by government that

"there is still scope for further reform, particularly in the way colleges are managed" and for

"important improvements in efficiency and good management practice". (DES 1987) (p 3)

The Government, therefore, has determined that each LEA in England will be required to submit a scheme to the Secretary of State for "delegating to its further education colleges extensive financial powers and responsibilities within a continuing framework of strategic planning by the LEA". (DES 1987) (p 6)

The consultative paper issued by the DES in 1987 "Maintained Further Education: Financing, Governance and Law" stated that it was not the intention of the government to transfer the higher education institutions in Wales from the local

authority as it intended in England. The LEA's in Wales will continue to be responsible for maintaining the forty further and higher education institutions. Nevertheless some of the financial pressures present in the English institutions are likely to be experienced in Wales.

FE Central Control

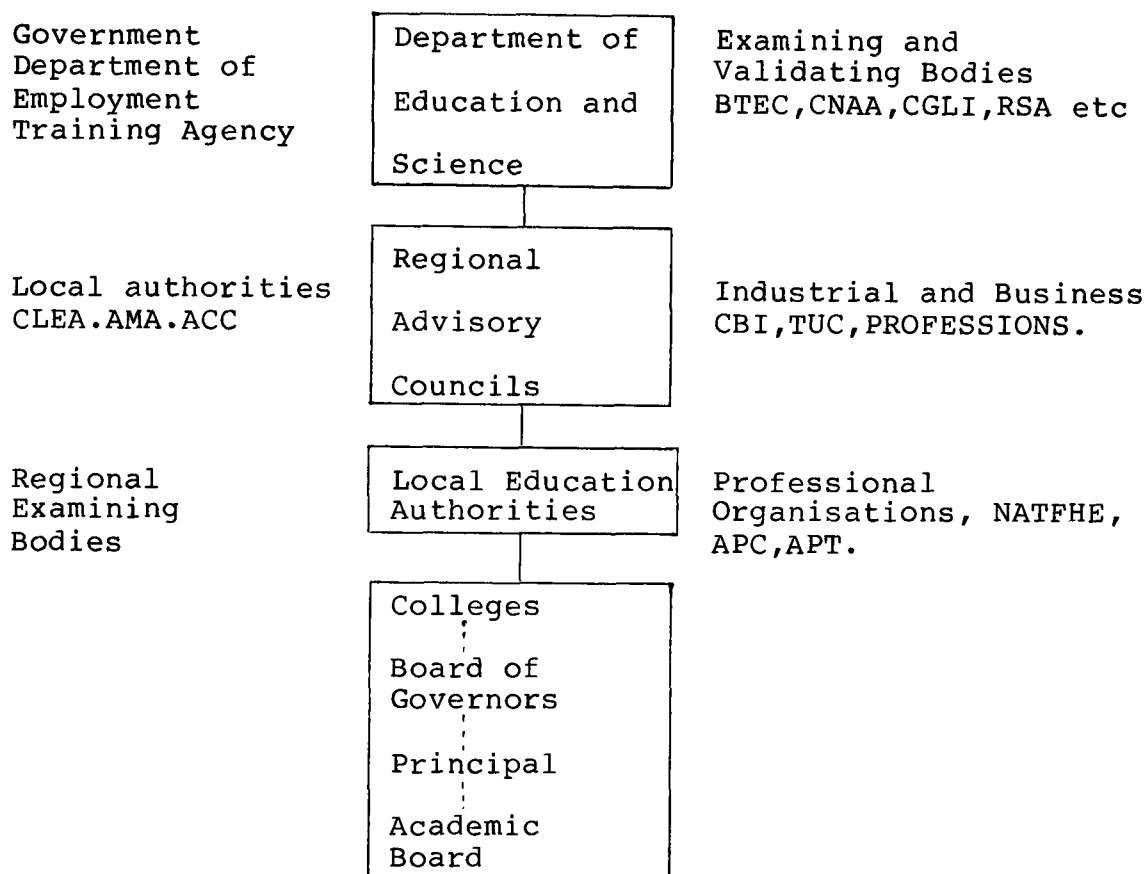
The manner in which external control of the content and curricula of FE is effected tends to add to the lack of clarity of objectives and to the uncertainty surrounding the discharge of its role.

A major feature which distinguishes further education from other educational sectors is the existence of regional and national machinery in the form of Regional Advisory Councils (RAC's). They include:

- * the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers (ACSET), established by the DES in 1981.
- * the Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education, set up in 1977.
- * more importantly of late with the capping of the advanced further education pool in England, the National Advisory Body (NAB), set up in 1981.
- * and in Wales, the Welsh Advisory Body (WAB), set up in 1982.

These bodies are linked to the DES and their decisions affect the LEA's and ultimately the colleges.

Administratively speaking, therefore, further education is administered at three levels - national, regional and local, represented diagrammatically as:



Particularly at national level, there are many interested bodies with an input into the system.

The T.A. requires that LEA's are accountable to them for continuing financial support, through the NAFE programme.

The examining bodies of which the Business and Technician

Education Council is typical (BTEC), stipulates course outlines, sets course objectives, strategies for assessment and requires submissions from colleges that meet BTEC requirements before colleges are given permission to offer those courses.

The Department of Education and Science (DES) exercises control over the further education sector in a number of important ways. Its main tasks concern the broad allocation of resources for education; the control of the rate and educational building: local authority expenditure and the rate support grant; and the training and supply of teachers. These duties represent important powers, particularly where finance is concerned and give to the DES crucial control.

Control over educational standards within the system is maintained by Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI's); their primary responsibility is to the Secretary of State. In Wales, the responsibility for non-university education lies with the Welsh Office and Wales therefore, it has its own inspectorate reporting to the Secretary of State for Wales. The Inspectorate has as its main function the assessment of standards within the system, the main device employed by them for the execution of this task, is the 'inspection'. An inspection programme in a college will have formal and informal outcomes. The significance for colleges of a formal inspection is that the report is published and made public,

thereby exposing to the public the strengths and weaknesses of the inspected college.

The Regional Advisory Council's main purpose is to advise LEA's within their areas on the main further education needs to be met, and they will seek to co-ordinate provision within their region. They are meant to ensure that advanced courses are not duplicated and that the levels of fees do not vary widely. The RAC's provide and conduct examinations and award certificates, they organise short courses, conferences and seminars and they encourage staff development. A most important function exercised by them is that of course approval. The Welsh Joint Education Committee is both Regional Advisory Council and Regional Examining Board (REB) for Wales, a fact which marks it out as different from its English counterparts.

The ambiguities surrounding the status and role of the further education college makes the setting of precise objectives difficult, if not impossible. Objectives (as Hicks 1972, p 60) argues, serve as necessary reference points for the organisation, establishing its direction and providing the criteria of its effectiveness.

In reality the objectives of the FE college are complex and changeable over time. They represent the expectations that the three parties to the educational experience bring to the

college - the students, parents/employers and the staff.

Consequently, (a) each individual brings a set of personal objectives to the changes desired for themselves
(b) Society establishes a set of educational objectives for the college which focus on changes to be wrought in the knowledge, skill, attitudes and behaviour of the student.
(c) Resource objectives concerned with changes of state in the human and physical resources that enables the college to achieve its personal and educational objectives and to discharge the tasks of the college (Paisey 1981). (p 28 -35)

The expectations of the different stakeholders in the FE sector are often at variance with one another in this respect. The 'split purposes' which these foster become reflected in two varying orientations, those of the 'missioner' and 'marketeer', which carry different implications for action.

The Missioner

In Britain, historically education has been associated with the Church, the Protestant Ethic and Victorian values. These influences translated into the classroom have seen the role of the teacher as part of a proselytizing process,

converting, changing attitudes, bringing about social conformity. This influence is evident even in further education where the teacher is more concerned with education than with training. An example of this can be seen in the inclusion of a general and liberal studies component in engineering and science courses, an attempt that sought to broaden and liberalise the minds of engineering and science students. This 'missionary' commitment is never far below the surface, as witnessed by a fairly recent Department of Education and Science and Her Majesty's Inspectorate (1982) paper entitled "Teacher Training and Preparation for Working Life" that stated:

"Preparing pupils (students) for adult working life is not the only task of teachers, nor is a knowledge of industry and commerce the only skill a teacher needs to be effective in his field. The most important preparation is still a sound basic education, coupled with an ability to work with others.....".(HMI 1982)

This is no less in evidence in FE.

The Marketeer

The view of the college as providing a service which it sells in the market place is also evident in colleges of further education (Theodossin 1986). Colleges have traditionally been associated with providing vocational education, providing people with the skills they need to get jobs in the market place. The backgrounds of many of the staff in the colleges of further education is an

industrial/commercial background, (in contrast to the staff in schools, who tend to be academic). The influence of 'industrial attitudes' amongst college staffs might explain why in further education, conditions of service have long been enshrined in a collective agreement between the lecturers' union, the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (NATFHE) and the employers (the LEA's), (whereas in the schools sector movement towards a 'conditions of service' has been very recent).

Theodossin's (1986) survey of the perceptions that people hold of further education found evidence of both 'missionary' and 'marketeer', and his text contains many examples from the literature of further education and from empirical work conducted as part of his Responsive College Project.

In trying to bring the strands of both missionary and marketeer together, Bratchell (1968) defines further education as:

"..... existing to serve the needs of industry, commerce and the community in a manner more immediately responsive than other sectors of the educational service".(Bratchell 1968) (p 56-57)

More recently the White Paper 'Training for Jobs' (1984) claims that:

"..... the public sector needs a greater incentive to relate the courses it provides more closely to the needs of the customer and in the most cost effective way".(CMND 9135 1984)

However, whatever objectives are formulated for further education, all expectations of the sector include a concern that it should be "effective" and "efficient" in the short run and capable of maintaining itself as a healthy operating system in the medium to longer term.

In meeting these demands the college embraces certain factors that are critical to its success. These factors are:

- * financial resources
- * human resources
- * physical resources
- * the clients
- * the curriculum

These need to be co-ordinated and monitored in order for the college to be effective.

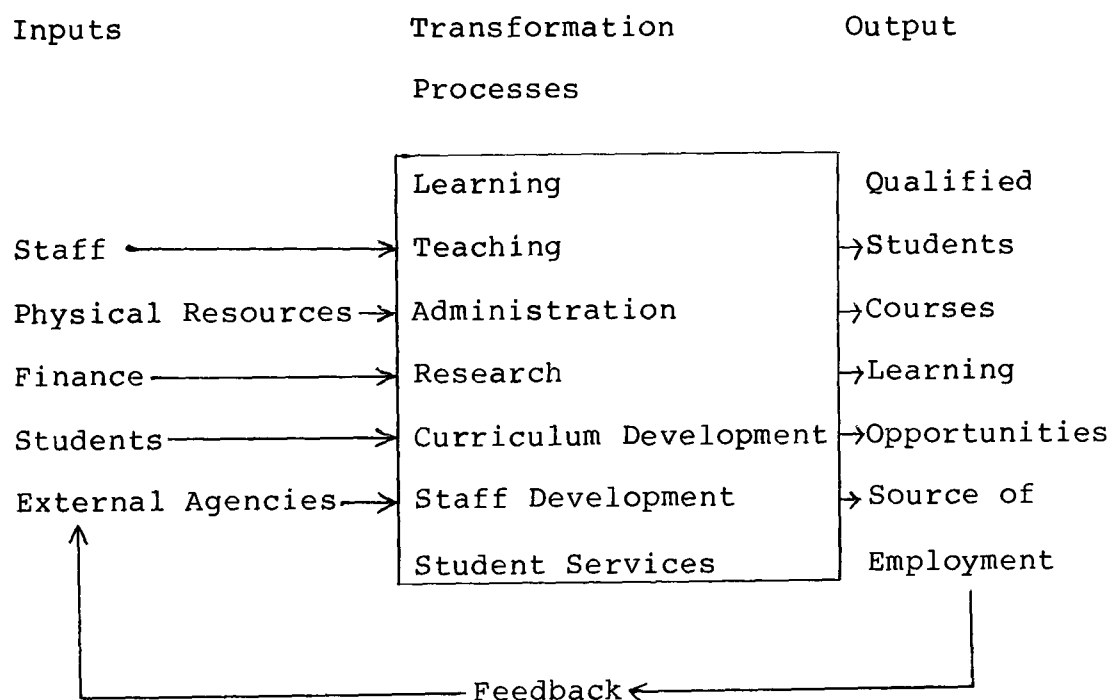
They come together in the form of a model with each stakeholder having characteristic (if also different) demands, objectives and power to influence, which will now be outlined.

FURTHER EDUCATION SEEN AS A SYSTEM

If one adopts a 'systems model' to explain and describe the

working of the further education system, the above factors can be categorised as inputs to the system, which as a result of the processes of education produces the desired outputs. Represented diagrammatically then, the further education systems model would appear thus.

A Systems Model of Further Education



(Inputs, outputs and processes of the college system derived from Latcham and Cuthbert 1983).

Each of the end elements in this model (the outputs and inputs) of the system are subject to pressures which have, at once, created the present structure and threaten to change the system of relations which form the F.E.college. These may be considered in turn.

OUTPUTS

(a) The students' Goals

The objectives of the further education system as we saw earlier emphasises two strands, (a) provision for the general educational needs of the students, and (b) provision for the preparation for the world of work, partly in response to the needs of employers.

The labour market is subject, like other aspects of society, to change over time, and it is important that the further education system should respond to these changes because to fail to do so would be to fail to meet its obligations to its clients. The complexity of the labour market, mirrored in the widely differing backgrounds, attainments and expectations of the students, is reflected in the range of provision in the colleges.

The further education college's range of provision is greater than any other type of educational establishment, involving it in catering for the following categories of students:

- (i) 16-19 year olds on full-time courses leading to pre-vocational, craft, technician and other vocational qualifications, and GCSE and A level and other general education examinations.

- (ii) adults/young people on day release/part-time courses released from employment by employers.
- (iii) trainees receiving off-the-job training from YTS.
- (iv) adults on retraining programmes sponsored by the Training Agency
- (v) unemployed people seeking to improve qualifications or acquire qualifications under the 21 hours rule.
- (vi) adults under the community education provision following non-vocational courses
- (vii) overseas students
- (viii) adults following courses, full-time/part-time of an advanced nature leading to professional qualifications.

Many of these have been added to the college's traditional provision as a result of past trends and changes in policy.

A number of trends and policy changes, forecast or in current consideration, promise to challenge the existing pattern of provision.

The major trend since the 1970's has seen a decline in the number of part-time students and a rise in the number of 16-19 years olds seeking full-time education in the further education sector of a general education nature. This trend will probably be reversed between 1982 and 1994 because of the forecast demographic trend of a decline in the 16-19 year old population.

(b) Curriculum/Courses

The traditional F.E. scheme is a course rather than a set of subjects, brought about by external influences over the curriculum in the past. This puts an emphasis on credentialism, requiring courses to end in qualifications, examinations and certificates.

Further education has had to respond to pressures from validating bodies like the Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC) to institute major changes to the curriculum and its method of delivery; it has been expected to respond to the needs of industry and to provide a curriculum that satisfies employers and professional bodies. The TA initiatives into the education system have seen variously the Training Opportunities Programme (TOPS) expand, contract, and disappear, the Job Training Scheme (JTS) appear and disappear

to be replaced with the Employment Training Scheme (ET), it has seen the launch of the Training Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI), which attempts to bring vocational relevance to the school curriculum and further education for 14-18 year olds; City and Guilds of London (C&G) in conjunction with BTEC have launched the Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education (CPVE) programme, which is seen by some as a rival competitor for the diminishing numbers of 16-19 year olds, in the area of pre-vocational education. Finally, as traditional sources of recruitment dwindle, new initiatives make it imperative that further education must change and adapt to Open Learning, Open Tech, GCSE, the Open College, and latterly, the redesign of vocational qualifications to fit in to the new framework of the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQ). The implications for college management in this is that it has fully stretched, staffing resources at a time of cut-back in the system and introduced new and urgent pressures for curricular response, staff development and the management of change. Curricular challenges, falling rolls, tighter budgetary control and planning, all have implications for the management of staff. Indeed as Leech (1982) concludes

"There is no doubt that further education colleges have undergone a significant change in working practices, in order to meet these curricular challenges". (Leech 1982) (p 33)

The challenge posed for college management is that they must

consciously direct developmental activity, constantly adjusting and changing the management systems to accommodate changing curricula. This has implications for organisational structures and the systems that support curriculum change and might well influence admission procedures, appraisal systems, course evaluation and staff and management development.

In 1984 the Government agreed to the establishment of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications, whose aim is to improve vocational qualifications by basing them on the standards of competence required in employment and it was to establish a national vocational qualification framework. The reforms being proposed by the newly established NCVQ will have dramatic changes for the way further education is organised, marketed and delivered.

The most significant proposed change as far as the colleges are concerned, is that the new qualifications will be based upon the idea of competence - an ability to demonstrate achievement in the performance of tasks relevant to employment. This definition presents some problems for the further education sector as colleges are not normally structured in such a way that competence can be tested easily. This type of testing is more easily organised on a work-based programme, such as the Youth Training Scheme, on which much of the pilot work has been conducted. Therein

lies one of the most significant changes affecting the colleges. The college's role has been eroded by YTS away from the primary role of providing training and assisting employers in the formulation of standards, to one of a servicing role. The YTS model is likely to be used for the wider vocational examining systems and the standards will be monitored by the Department of Employment, not the DES.

It is not all doom and gloom however, because it is anticipated that there will be some benefits to the further education sector, such as the marketing advantages, a simplified planning model for work-related Non-Advanced Further Education (NAFE) plan, access and progression between courses will be simplified, and employers will be encouraged to seek more training. If more training takes place, however, there is no automatic right of provision for further education. One of the most significant challenges facing college management is the amount of competition their colleges face from the numbers of private training providers spawned by the YTS programme and the newly instituted Employment Training Scheme. Nationally recognised vocational qualifications may extend the market but they do not guarantee the F.E. sector the right to provide the vast majority of qualifications, as it has done in the past. If colleges are to survive they must plan for the future.

Undoubtedly, this major change in vocational qualifications

will have serious implications for such issues as the utilisation of available resources, conditions of service of staff and staff development.

These externally induced changes are amongst the most significant recent developments in F.E. as they have undoubtedly contributed to the raising of accountability of the F.E. system. They have caused students to register greater levels of satisfaction and caused other examining bodies to adopt the same curricular principles.

As a result, colleges have undergone significant changes in working practices in order to meet and provide the new courses and changed curriculum strategies. This curricular change with its emphasis on experiential learning, vocational preparation, integration across the curriculum away from subject based courses and the encouragement of the autonomy of the learner, represents a major change in the college environment.

Changing curricula continues to be the order of the day with:

- pressures to develop more flexible delivery methods
e.g. open learning;
- modularization of the curriculum to cope with
continuous learning;
- new client groups, including the less able,

disadvantaged, women returners,
and an employment situation which is likely to make
greater demands on the system for "meal-tickets" as
distinct from "leisure-time" courses

Inputs

(a) The Input of Ideas

The input of ideas about what the FE college should offer by way of educational and training opportunities is partly in the hands of the national, regional and local bodies described earlier, and partly in the hands of the staff of the individual college, some but not all of whom have been trained for the work in the national teacher-training programme. Under both headings, the consistency of the ideas injected is limited. The variety of orientations represented in the national and regional bodies results in ideas, which are both different and changing, being injected into the system of provision. The variety of staff backgrounds results in varying ideas as to what should be taught and how. In comparison with both schools and universities, each of which rests upon a foundation of consistent backgrounds of training, the FE system displays greater heterogeneity.

(b) Funding and its Control

Funding for further education comes principally from two sources, the Rate Support Grant, administered and controlled by central government, and the local rates, collected and determined by the authorities.

The Education (No 2) Act 1968 required that every maintained further education college should have an Instrument of Government which provided for the constitution of a Board of Governors, and that the college should be conducted according to Articles of Government. The issue of college government is quite appropriately linked with that of college management, in that the rules governing the conduct of the college provide the framework and the limits against which the college management operates. As presently constituted, the Board of Governors has the overall responsibility for the conduct of the college, its direction, educational provision, staffing, financial control and the approval of courses.

The Education Reform Act (1988) alters this system of government significantly by requiring-

- (i) LEA's to delegate extensive financial powers to the colleges
- (ii) the further and higher education governing bodies to be

composed differently so that they become more independent and effective.

- (iii) further education's legal position and role to be made clearer and more specific.

The financial constraints are being tightened and made more subject to achievement in the market for the product.

Specifically it is proposed that once the LEA has set the college's annual budget, that the Board of Governors for the college should be given maximum freedom to determine how it will be spent. In future, governing bodies will be free to vire across all budget-headings, they will be able to carry forward from one financial year to the next such "surpluses and deficits as prudent management allows", will be able to retain a proportion of income earned and will not be obliged to use the LEA common services and common purchasing agreements. Governing bodies do not however have carte blanche, as the proposed Act places upon them a general duty to manage efficiently and to seek approval from the LEA before committing the college to significant additional expenditure.

The Act aims to give colleges greater institutional freedom and proposes to achieve this by reducing the number of LEA governors and replacing them with members drawn from business, industry and professional interests, and by giving colleges greater financial autonomy. The chairmanship is to

go to one of the governors representing business, industrial, professional and employment interests, or parents.

The intention of the changes is that colleges will become far more responsive to local employment needs. Governors will have powers to dispense with courses and spend money on other areas, although they will have to justify their decisions to the LEA in the annual budgetary review. The LEA will still have responsibility for the Non Advanced Further Education (NAFE) provision, but the Governing Body will be responsible for the general direction of the college. Overall responsibility for the efficient management of the college will be the Governing Body's, but the day-to-day running will be delegated, as now, to the Principal. This change in the responsibilities of the new governing bodies is of particular significance to the present study.

(c) Physical Resources

The further education system has enjoyed almost uninterrupted expansion since 1945. According to the NAFE In Practice Report (1987) there is in consequence usually sufficient accommodation in the further education sector but the quality and suitability varies greatly". But it also found a wide divergence of quality of buildings, from buildings that were excellent purpose built, to unsuitable annexes, and in the

quality of equipment (the sample colleges had well-equipped specialist rooms, laboratories and workshops, but some of the newer growth areas like business studies were using out of date equipment).

Next to staffing costs, premise-related costs are the most significant college cost. Premises-related costs include rates, heating, lighting, cleaning and maintenance. The Audit Commission (1985) in its value for money exercise looked very closely at these costs and made recommendations for more effective use of college premises, concluding that this was an area in which college management could effect substantial cost savings.

(d) Staffing and its Control

The further education curriculum is both demand-based and labour-intensive, and for those reasons, the responsive college will be receptive to market demands and will appreciate that its most important asset is the quality of its teaching staff. But the individual college has hitherto had little direct control over staffing issues (other than selection) as the main decisions about individual contract terms have been in the hands of either the local authority or the national system of collective bargaining.

Staff can enter teaching within a further education college

without teacher training qualifications, unlike the schools sector. Lecturing staff have fewer teacher training qualifications than their counterparts in the schools sector. Indeed, most of the staff have an industrial/commercial background which is often specialist.

Academic staff in the further education college are regarded for contractual purposes as employees of the LEA. Their pay and conditions of service are agreed nationally, prior to 1987 by the Burnham Further Education Committee, but with its abolition in March 1987, by the National Joint Council (NJC) for Further Education Teachers in England and Wales, (which has inherited the rights and responsibilities for all bargaining). The NJC agreement covers all full-time lecturers, associated lecturers, hourly paid part-time lecturers and research staff.

The conditions of service document specifies in detail the conditions under which all staff are employed in further education; the essential points relating to the grading of staff, college establishment, and grouping of colleges for payment purposes.

Full-time college staff work a 38 week year, of which not more than 36 weeks shall be teaching (or class contact), and a 30 hour week. The amount of teaching depends upon the grade of staff. Current bands are:

Principal Lecturer	13-16 hours
Senior Lecturer	15-18 hours
Lecturer 2	17-20 hours
Lecturer	20-22 hours

The proportion of posts at the various grades are nationally agreed with maxima and minima bands subject to LEA discretion. The work of the college is graded according to level - of which there are three - the level being specified and laid down by the Burnham Further Education Committee. The NJC retains this sub-committee on the Grading of Courses, and the Burnham regulations still apply. The categories of work at the different grades is used to determine the numbers of promoted posts for lecturers, the size of the college departments and thus the salary of the head of department, and the size and grouping of the college and so the salaries of the principal and vice-principal.

Besides academic staff, the typical college will also have support and non-teaching staff, covering such activities as technician support, cleaning, office and catering.

In recent years the role and size of part-time staff has increased. In many colleges part-time staffing amounts to 20-25% of the total and as such they have become a permanent and valued part of the staffing complement. The 1987

Salaries Agreement recognised the permanent and important contribution that part-time staff make to the further education sector by incorporating into the agreement important new rights and benefits for them.

Two issues that are related and have important implications for staff relate to staff appraisal and staff development. Both have remained cinderella areas in further education for many years, but as a result of government initiatives, will assume a much higher and more important profile than hitherto.

It is the intention of the government, under Section 49 of the Education (No 2) Act 1986, to impose appraisal schemes on teachers in LEA'S without acceptable arrangements, forcing them in effect to assume closer control over staff performance. A similar motivation, that of forcing colleges to exert more direct influence of staff ideas about their roles, lies behind proposals for the development of in-service training.

Concern for the paucity of in-service training for further education lecturers goes back to the 1970's. (See ACSTT 1975). This concern was taken up by the Secretary of State for Education in 1982 with the institution of a direct grants provision to fund in-service training for teachers in areas that were accorded priority. New arrangements came into

force in April 1987 making funds available for government determined national priorities, and also allowing LEA's to fund locally determined priorities. The significance of the new scheme is that it will allow the government to assess what LEA's are spending and perhaps more importantly to see exactly in what areas of training money is being spent. Additionally, through the national priorities the government can target the money to those areas of staff development that they consider to be important.

The years from the early 1970's on have been marked by changes that have impacted particularly upon staff in the colleges. Circular 7/70 resulted in the setting up of Academic Boards which raised expectations for a more participative approach to college management, and secondly the flood of employment legislation of that period, has given new rights to staff in such areas as; health and safety, maternity leave, employment protection, sex and race discrimination, redundancy, unfair dismissal and time off for union duties, at national level. Agreements on conditions of service, grievance procedures, collective disputes procedures, disciplinary and promotion procedures, have taken place at the local level. These developments

"..... have required college management to become conversant with a range of technical matters far removed from strictly educational objectives". Farmer (1982) (p 70)

Observers of the industrial relations scene in education have pointed to the changes that the profession has undergone. Coates (1972) writing on the rise of teacher militancy attributes this new development to the response by the teaching profession to the successive incomes policies of the 1960's and the desire "to participate in the formation of national economic policy in general, and incomes policy in particular, that so affected the negotiations within the Burnham Committee". Broussine (1984) in looking at developments in trade unionism in the educational sector, points to the increase in density of trade union membership that has taken place and the increasing 'unionateness' of unions like the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (NATFHE) and the National Association of Local Government Officers (NALGO). 'Unionateness' in this context is defined by Blackburn (1967) as

"... the extent to which (the union) as a whole-hearted union, identifying with the labour movement, and willing to use all the power of the movement". (Blackburn 1967)

Increasing unionateness implies that managers at all levels in the college need to be

"increasingly aware of the needs, attitudes and potential grievances of the employees for whom they are responsible ... they will also need to be aware of their rights and obligations in grievance and negotiating procedures". (Broussine 1984) (p 79)

Davies (1973) notes that teachers are salaried employees, employed on a rather loosely defined contract with little control over their own affairs. They are subject to public accountability which limits their professional role, and outside the lecture room they are subjected to administrative constraints imposed by management. Further, he points to the inherent conflict that is built into the status differences arising from a salary structure that distinguishes between lecturer, lecturer II, senior lecturer and principal lecturer. Davies (1973) maintains that the instability of professional status has led teachers/lecturers to adopt collective bargaining methods and procedures, because

"..... basically employees, they have had to unionise to protect or advance their social and work status".(Davies 1973) (p 436)

In the American context Sergiovanni and Carver (1973) maintain that collective bargaining as a form of decision-making will continue to increase in importance and

"sophisticated understanding of this process is an important dimension of administrative effectiveness" (Sergiovanni and Carver 1973) (p121)

for college managers.

The national arrangements for collective determination of terms and conditions have also been subjected to change in

recent years. The context is much broader than the college environment solely, as it involves state regulation, national and local authority policy level and collective bargaining and agreement. Currently agreements that relate to conditions of service and pay are agreed nationally and are binding upon LEA's and upon the unions that are usually party to these agreements. However, there is some scope for the determination of certain matters at local level and this situation leaves scope for the union to negotiate at liaison committee level within the LEA. In industrial relations matters the principal is the manager acting on behalf of the LEA, and is responsible to the College Governing Body. The trade union that is recognised for negotiating purposes and the one that represents the majority of academic staff is the National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education (NATFHE). Some members of academic staff belong to the Professional Association of Teachers (PAT).

Matters that relate to disputes can sometimes be resolved at college level through negotiation between management and unions, such items as staffing levels, procedures for appointments and promotion, timetabling, working conditions and matters affecting individual staff. If disputes can not be resolved at college level then the LEA will be involved. However, a national scheme of conditions of service sets out a model scheme for handling grievances, arrangements for resolving collective disputes are laid down nationally, and

there are national procedures for discipline, suspension and dismissal which may be incorporated into local agreements.

Input-Output relations

The systems model outlined on page 55 is a simplification but it is useful to highlight areas of potentially important activity, and for our purpose here, it is a useful vehicle for describing the main elements of the further education system which have some how to be managed by someone.

An assumption that underlies a systems approach is that the model is one that depends upon managing the college's relationship with its external environment. But this environment, arguably, exerts a greater influence over the college than the college is able to exert over its environment. That is not to say that the college is impotent. It can exert control over its inputs by, for example, guiding, counselling, accepting, rejecting potential students and by the processes of staff selection, rejection, training etc. It can also, subject to certain external requirements, control the central process of throughputs - the processes of education/training - by evaluating, and modifying the teaching/learning process, by controlling the curriculum, by distributing and manipulating the resources at its disposal etc.

The college can also influence the outputs but cannot control them in the same way as it controls the processes, but through the mechanism of feedback, it can and should, monitor, evaluate, modify the inputs and processes, such evaluative processes being examinations results, student destinations, wastage rates, employment rates etc. These are all processes that colleges are being encouraged to formalise and systematise as part of the NAFE monitoring exercise, and part of the Audit Commissions drive for greater efficiency in further education.

Put together all of these inputs, outputs and processes affect the structure of relationships and it is the task of management to ensure that these relationships are effectively controlled.

Chapter 4

Theoretical Perspectives on F.E. Management

The F.E. system needs to be managed and a perspective derived that seeks to reconcile the numerous elements that comprise it into a coherent theory. Such a perspective is the classical model that sees the management process as consisting of three essential elements, those of organisation, direction and control.

Organisation and Management

The functioning of the college depends upon the purposive combination of the financial, physical and human resources. This just does not happen by chance, it has to be 'managed', and so within the organisation people occupy managerial roles. Their occupancy of these roles endows them with certain powers and rights that are designed to enable them to fulfil their roles as defined. Regardless of whatever type of organisation that exists, whether it be business, service or commonweal, the role and processes of management are crucial to the successful operation of the organisation.

Tannenbaum (1961) has synthesized the views of many prominent writers on organisation theory and has formulated his own definition as

"..... managers are those who use formal authority to organise, direct, or control responsible subordinates (and therefore, indirectly, the groups or complexes which they may head) in order that all service contributions be coordinated in the attainment of an enterprise purpose". (Tannenbaum 1961) (p 263)

The tasks of management are conceived as being contained in those functions of organisation, direction and control, and a person cannot claim to be a manager unless he/she "has and uses formal authority to organise, direct and control subordinates". Tannenbaum does not consider 'co-ordination' a management function, but sees it rather as something to be achieved; "the services of the managers are necessary to co-ordinate the specialised service contributions of the units (within further education departments), which they head "in attainment of the college objectives".

The issue of management within education is clouded by concepts of profession and the independence of the teacher, a reluctance to believe that industrial practices can have a relevance for education, and a belief that the principal as manager only distances him/herself from the staff. Yet management roles and functions exist in colleges, and attempts have been made to describe and define them. One such attempt has been made in the NAB (1986) document 'Good Management Practice', where the basic purpose of management in the public sector college was defined as:

"..... the responsibility of managers to bring students and teachers together in such a way that they can reach their respective goals at a cost that the funding authority will be prepared to bear". (NAB 1986) (p 17)

This defines responsibility without indicating what management is. An approximation may be obtained by first applying Tannenbaum's concepts. For Tannenbaum then management is concerned with the organisation, direction and control of resources in the pursuit of purposes and objectives. This characterisation is as relevant to F.E. as anywhere else, although in the past the F.E. college has been a system "managed" by an LEA and administered internally.

Organisation

Tannenbaum means by organisation "an arrangement in which all units are so related to each other that they may work as a whole". The key to understanding and expanding this concept lies in the elaboration on 'units' and 'relationships'. By unit, Tannenbaum means group or complex. Applied to the further education field it refers to section or department. 'Organising' for Tannenbaum entails the determination of the degree of specialisation to be adopted, the allocation of tasks to people, and the definition of the role-relationships which will exist.

In the FE college, specialisation usually extends only as far as defining roles according to subject taught; beyond this the teacher is responsible for the completion of all tasks necessary to the teaching of that subject. This is supported by the creation of certain administrative and technical support roles, all of which are loosely grouped into a

rudimentary hierarchy which is closely associated with sapiential authority.

This takes us to a consideration of authority, structures and specialisation of roles.

Authority

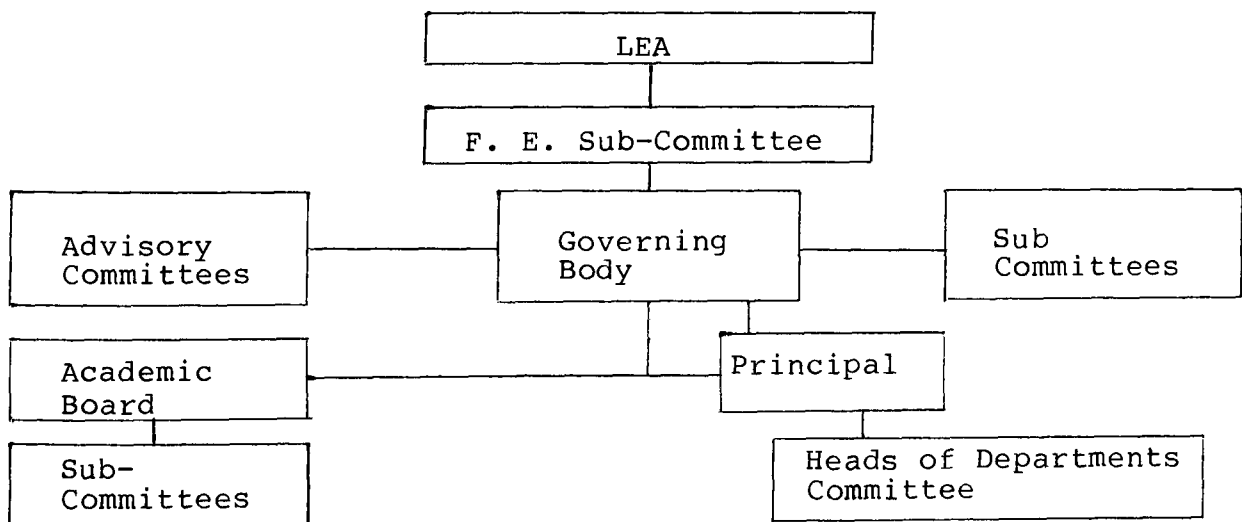
The source of authority within further education derives ultimately from the legal position occupied by the LEA through its agent, the legally constituted board of governors. The legal position has already been explained earlier in the reference to Instruments and Articles of Government. The principal as the agent of the LEA armed with his delegated powers finds himself as the source of authority within the college but he is not completely free to decide. The complicating factor is the existence of the Academic Board which shares academic authority with the Principal in a kind of partnership.(Although this is to be changed to an advisory role under The Education Reform Act.)

The Board of Governors is responsible for determining the general direction of the college, providing for example, policy instructions, the general educational objectives, budgets and overall staffing and within these, upon advice received from the college managers, to take strategic decisions that affect the future of the college. The governors are able to hold the college managers responsible for the realisation of college objectives, but they are not

able to impose their views on academic objectives.

The Academic Board has the responsibility for the academic work of the college. Whilst its constitution allows some variation between colleges, depending upon their size, it generally assumes responsibility for the "planning, co-ordination, development and oversight of all academic work" (Circular 7/70). The responsibility of the Academic Board also includes admission, exclusion and assessment of students. Many academic boards are responsible for academic staff appointments, new courses, appointment of external examiners, awards of prizes and scholarships. The greatest difference between the various types of academic board lies in whether they have formal responsibility over decisions about resources and expenditures.

Diagrammatically, the relationships between the various parts of the system can be represented thus:



Management Structures

The most commonly accepted form of organisational structure in further education is a simple hierarchy based on the department. The individuals that provide the specialised services within the college are combined in groups - departments, under a departmental head reporting to the principal. The kind of organisational structure adopted determines how management responsibilities are to be distributed in the college, the most dominant form in further education being a hierarchical pattern of principal, vice-principal, and heads of departments (colleges organised on a matrix structure have different nomenclature of faculties, or schools, and deans or directors). Below the department is a course structure or groupings related to subject areas.

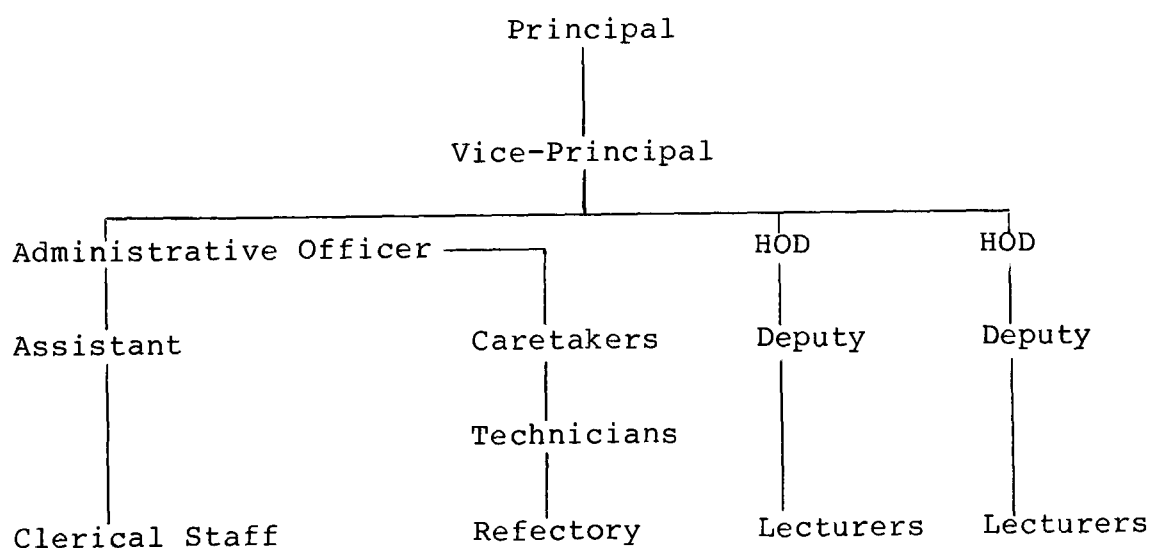
The basic principles of the hierarchical structure, as described by Weber (1974), are present; task specialisation, the chain of command - scalar principle, unity of command, one direct superior, and span of control. This hierarchical structure finds its most common expression in the dominant form of the department structure.

The services provided by the managers within the college are also specialised as between these there exist differing relationships that have consequences for the relationships among the groups and complexes that they head. The relationships are defined according to three properties - authority, responsibility and delegation. The degree of all

three are embodied in the differing power relationships that exist and the role differentiation attributed to principal, vice-principal, and heads of departments. (Because these roles are crucial to an understanding of the management function they will be enlarged upon later).

Within the further education system 'college management' is generally regarded as comprising the principal, vice-principal, heads of department and the chief administrative officer (registrar). A simplified representation of a basic hierarchical management structure is set out by way of illustration.

Departmental Structure



A typical organisation chart based on departments can be found in Appendix 4.

Departmental structures were thought to be an efficient form

of management and they still

"..... remain the most important form of basic unit in further education, as in higher education" (OU 1983) (p 27)

The Head of Department supplies unity of command, one direct superior and a span of control that enables a superior to direct and monitor the operation of his/her sub-ordinates.

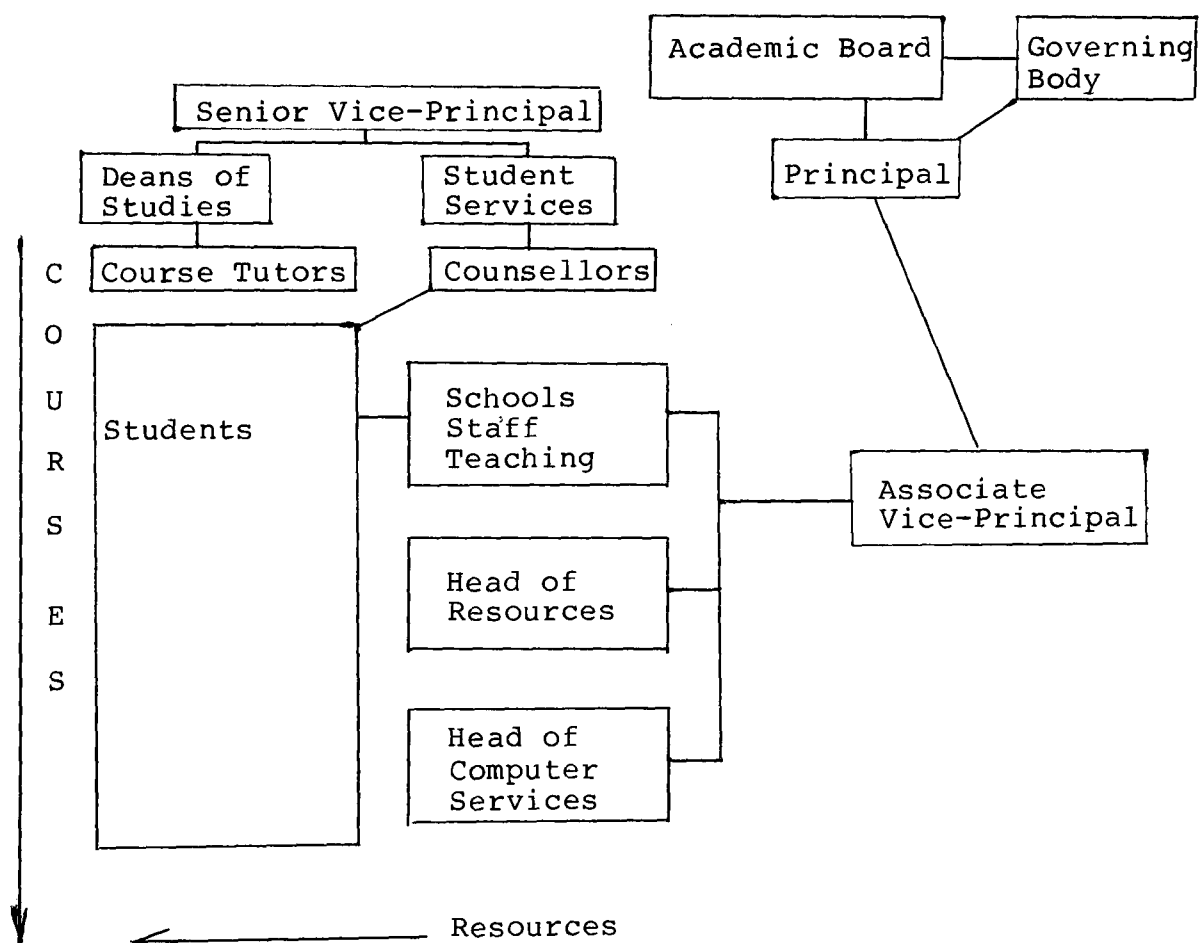
The 1960's saw the first murmurings of dissatisfaction with the departmental structure, and the late 1960's saw the emergence of the Hatfield Plan of the first matrix structure in education (Ferguson 1980). The matrix appears as an alternative structure to the hierarchical, and it appears also to be more complex. The matrix seems to have evolved as an attempt

"..... to break down departmentalism and replace it by organisations that make connections across disciplines, rather than within them". (OU 1983) (p 27)

and as an attempt also to produce an organisational structure that is more receptive to change and more capable of coping with change than the departmental structure. Some separation and devolution of the duties of the traditional HOD take place in the matrix, but the task of managing staff and resources remains, regardless of the organisational structure adopted. A simplified example of a matrix structure is set out below; a more detailed example of the same matrix structure and one that is actually in operation in one of the

colleges in Wales, is to be found in Appendix 5.

Matrix Structure



Management Roles

The Principal

The principal is the chief executive of the college and the academic head. His position is central since he will be ex-officio a member of the Governing Body, chairman of the

Academic Board and of the Heads of Department Committee. All principals have commonality in their prime responsibility as laid down in Circular 7/70 (1970). Principals are charged with "the responsibility of the internal organisation, management and discipline of the college", general responsibility for the appointment of teaching staff, has powers to suspend any member of staff, except the vice-principal, and is "empowered to suspend a student for good cause". The principal is required to prepare the annual financial estimates and in conjunction with the Governing Body, see that LEA policy is implemented.

Briault (1976) in a paper on the 'Role of the Principal' broadly defined the principal's role as possessing two chief threads, "that of management" and "that of leadership". The management role is perceived as one that very broadly is responsible for creating and maintaining an appropriate learning environment, and delivering the curriculum. Leadership, similarly defined, would see the principal assessing and evaluating the performance of both staff and students and ensuring that staff development takes place, creating and sustaining a caring environment, and maintaining a viable institution which will attract sufficient students and staff to ensure survival and development as a further education establishment. These two perspectives embody the basic tension between the marketeers and missioners, (see above pp.51-54).

The management task is seen as being complicated (Parkes

1982) by the need to maintain a characteristic academic community in which staff and students influence the style, character and management of the college, and the tasks of the principal are constrained by influences outside the college - government policy, the unions, LEA, parents, even the Common Market. The most widely perceived role of most principals is to see themselves as 'first amongst equals', a manager with the brief to develop democratic, participatory structures, both within the institution, and between the institution and the community it serves. (Richmond 1983) Circular 7/70 set out to create an environment of participative management, providing opportunities for staff at all levels to participate in decisions which affect the college. This is an extremely difficult area for senior staff since training in the handling of such participatory mechanisms is deficient. The setting up of Academic Boards and events since Circular 7/70 have seen responsibility for academic matters move away from the Principal to the Academic Board. Porter (1972) in describing the changing role of the college principal saw

"..... academic development is much more likely to be the responsibility of the academic board and the departments, rather than of the principal and his advisors. The principal's role is increasingly expressed through the recruitment of the academic staff and the organisation of conditions for effective teaching and learning". (Porter 1972) (p 30)

Porter's work evaluated the impact of Circular 7/70, but support for his view exists when Parkes (1982) confirms that whilst the Principal has lost some of his authority, based

on sapiential authority, he has gained more power - based on power of position.

"..... the ability to command people to do things from a hierarchical position was shifted towards power - the ability to get things done". (Parkes 1982) (p 90)

Support for what amounts to an important change of emphasis of role from leadership into administration finds support in the work of William Taylor (1969). Taylor maintains that principals see their 'real' work as being concerned with the maintenance of group relations, the personal development of students and staff and the determination of academic policy. But pressures for change have produced a greater emphasis on what Taylor calls the "institutional instrumental" aspects of the role. Confirmation of this move to a pre-occupation with administration can be found in the detailed study of six technical colleges carried out by Charlton, Gent and Scammels (1971). In their study, one principal is reported as saying that

"..... recently (he had) become conscious of a lack of contact with staff, a lack of understanding of their problems and an erosion of his 'leadership role' by spending time on 'administrative chores'" (Charlton et al 1971).(p 24)

When examining the management role of the principal, it emerges that the office carries with it the management of large physical plant and equipment, employed by industrial standards, in many instances a large labour force (teaching and non-teaching) with sizeable budgets, ranging in many

instances from £1 million to £20 million annually. Indeed, some principals liken their tasks to those of their industrial counterparts in terms of complexity - the complexities of planning, controlling, human relations, information analysis and exchange - with the additional complicating factors of public accountability and democratic control. Sheen (1983) likened further education to

"..... a service industry meeting the needs of our customers". (Sheen) (p 441)

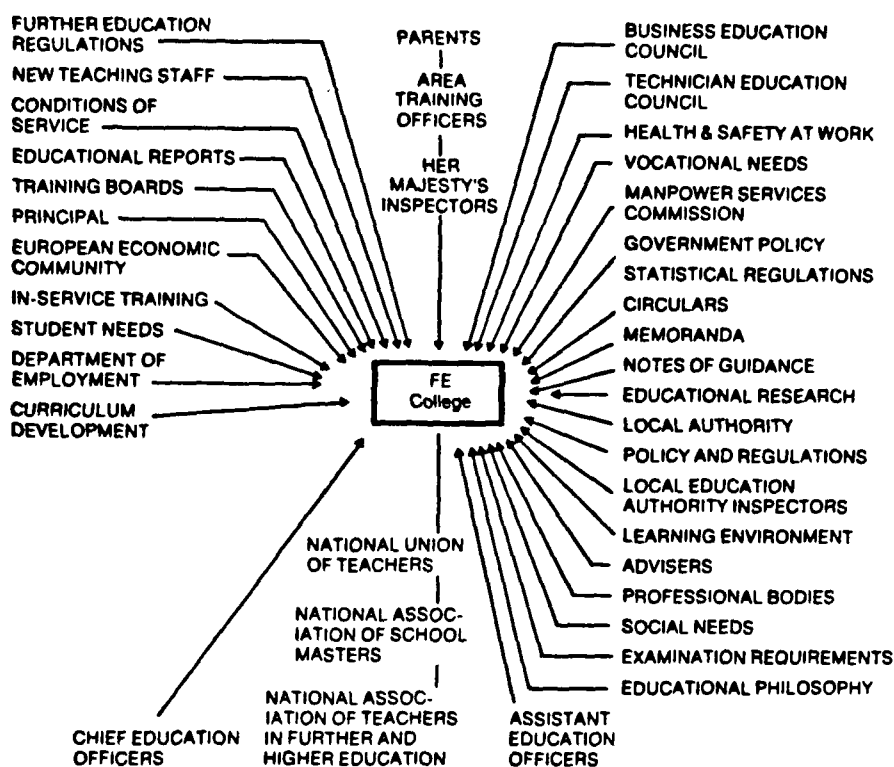
The principal has a general responsibility to ensure that staff and students are aware of the LEA and college regulations and rules. When disputes bring the principal into conflict with the trades unions, the role in this context is then perceived as interpreter of agreements, rather than regulator. If disputes exist between different members of staff then the role takes on the function of mediator (Porter 1976).

The execution of his responsibilities sees the principal dealing with numerous outside agencies; he must therefore be aware of his marketing and publicity roles. The role sees the principal as the chief link with the LEA, HMI's, the Regional Advisory Councils and local industry. Public relations is a further dimension that involves the principal projecting the corporate image of the college to the outside environment.

The role is a complex one with the principal at the centre of

a large number of interfaces. Something of the complexity of the task is illustrated in the diagram below.

The Further Education System



Source- "The Changing Face of FE"
(1982) Parkes D. (ed).
FEU.

Parkes sums up the complexity when he states that

"Further education colleges are unwieldy conglomerates with complex managerial and governmental structures with quasi-autonomous local authorities; barely co-ordinated by central government". (Parkes 1982) (p 90)

but the role of the principal is best summed up in the words of Haskeu (1951), who sees the position as being

".....prophet, organiser, chairman, executive policy formulator, technical consultant and technician, decision-maker and leader". (Haskew 1951) (p 639)

The Vice-Principal

"What an odd role is the vice-principal's. It varies from chalk to cheese across the land. From one extreme of virtually running the college for an absentee principal to the other end of the spectrum - looking after the mini-bus and other minor tasks". (Blake 1985) (p 248)

The above quotation highlights the position of vice-principals and the diversity to be found in the range of their duties, responsibilities and authority. Nicolson (1968) in his examination of the workings of a sample of colleges of further education found that few clear written definitions of duties and responsibilities could be found. The expectation is that at vice-principal level such a job description would exist, but of the eight colleges surveyed by Nicolson (1968), only one had a copy of his duties, and that, in fact, was the 'further particulars' sent out to applicants when the job was advertised. Another writer has pointed to the even greater anomaly that even within the same local authority there exists a wide diversity of roles and functions for the vice-principal

"..... the only predictable features of which being the wide diversity of roles, functions, powers and responsibilities evident even between college senior staffs working under the same education authority." (Hicks 1975) (p 48)

The model articles of government referred to earlier as an

appendix to Circular 7/70 makes no mention of the specific duties of a vice-principal, but they do lay down the conditions under which a vice-principal must be appointed, suspended or dismissed. Ironically, the NATFHE handbook on "College Administration" devoted a section to the role of the principal, but contains hardly a reference to the vice-principal's role.

The main perceived role of the vice-principal in the study of Charlton, Gent and Scammels (1971) was seen to be:

- (i) Academic
- (ii) Administrative
- (iii) Mixed Duties

Their findings confirmed that vice-principals had little to do with (i) above but were mostly confined to (ii) and (iii). Indeed, when principals were asked how they saw the role, they indicated that the appointment satisfied two basic needs

"i.e. providing relief from the increasing load of administrative duties and supplying a deputy in case of absence" (Charlton et al 1971) (p 31)

Heads of Department, on the other hand, saw the vice-principal as "a sounding board" for their complaints and ideas and a "progress chaser" in the HOD's dealings with the principal. Their study confirms the lack of consensus about the vice-principal's role and further highlights the wide diversity, from mundane tasks that could be carried out by a competent clerk, to vice-principals fulfilling the role of deputy principal in a very real way.

There would seem to be a number of forces at work in the system that determine the role of the vice-principal. The most obvious one is the management style of the principal. At the one extreme a principal could be autocratic and expect to make all important decisions himself, delegating very little; at the other extreme, a principal could approach the task of running the college as a partnership and involve a vice-principal totally in all aspects of college management. A number of models will be presented later, (Brown 1974).

Recent curricular innovations have shaped the role and a vice-principal might find himself spending an increasing amount of time initiating curricular change, particularly in a college with a departmental structure. Examples exist of vice-principals taking the responsibility for the coordinating role across departments of the colleges' response to the youth training initiative and the developments in pre-vocational education. The size and complexity of the institution coupled with the structure, represent powerful shaping forces. With the increasing rate of change expected of further education colleges and the ability to respond quickly to market forces, some colleges have attempted to meet the challenges by abolishing traditional departmental structures and replacing them by a variety of management structures that are designed to meet the demands more flexibly and imaginatively. This change has been reflected in an alteration in the vice-principal's role away from what Owen (1984) has called the "faithful handiman", whose job was marked by a lack of definition, to a multi-faceted role

exerting college-wide influence.

Something of the variety of roles to be found are summarised very briefly by Darryl A Brown (1974) in an article in which he identifies five basic types of vice-principals and situations.

The first is the 'Interposed Vice-Principal', placed between the principal and staff, responsible for communication, consultation and sometimes mediation. Such a vice-principal is "viewed by the staff as the principal's cats-paw, and by the principal as the staff's Uriah Heep, he finally becomes a latter-day Ishmael with every man's hand against him".

The second is 'The Prescribed Vice-Principal', with certain areas of defined responsibility parcelled out, those responsibilities being "the messy, awkward, time-consuming jobs" that the principal does not want to do.

Thirdly comes the 'Assimilated Vice-Principal', with the principal and vice-principal as senior and junior partners responsible for the principalship function. "Jobs are divided between the partners on an agreed basis while they remain collectively available for running the college".

'The Lumbered Vice-Principal' is the fourth category, with the vice-principal running the college and the principal collecting the glory - a model that is quite useful for the staff development of vice-principals, certainly an attractive

model to vice-principals anxious to enhance their career prospects.

Finally, there is 'The Parked Vice-Principal' - the one who is put out of the way through incompetence, old age, or simply because he/she is too obstructive and getting in the principal's way.

Brown, it would seem, presents his categories almost in a light-hearted manner, thus highlighting the diversity and extremes of the role but some measure of support, with possibly an exception to the fifth category, has been found by Tony Bush (1983) of the Open University; his research into the role of the vice-principal (by survey questionnaire from twenty-one vice-principals) found examples of the other four types. For Bush (1983)

"The relationship between principal and vice-principal is complex and dependent on many personal and organisational variables". (Bush 1983) (p 16)

He considers, however, that with the emergence of shared management and a team-approach which is emerging in colleges in the eighties, that the most likely future model is the 'assimilated vice-principal'.

Brown's (1974) analysis has shown that the relationship between principal and vice-principal can take different forms, and that the personal qualities and competences of the individuals concerned must influence the relationship. It would appear that no precise universally and accepted job-

description exists, and that the role is shaped by the college structure adopted, the role set and perception of the principal and the inter-relationship of the key role-holders within the management structure. The role of vice-principal would seem to be diverse and capable of great flexibility within the system.

The Head of Department

The role of the HOD is determined by the structure under which he or she operates. However, whilst the authority of the principal is laid down by Circular 7/70, the responsibilities in college government of the head of department have generally to be inferred from the circular. Broadly, again by inference, 7/70 gives HOD's a significant responsibility in the planning of academic developments, for maintaining and improving teaching standards and playing a significant governmental role.

Writers on college management, however, are in agreement that the tasks of the HOD within colleges are difficult to define. Tolley, (1972) in looking at the managerial role of the HOD attributes their lack of definition to the failure to specify the *raison d'etre* of the department. He admits to an inability to provide a satisfactory definition of a department, but points to some of the factors that shape the influence and power within the overall structure. Tolley maintains that the key to the understanding of the role is to be found in the power that is delegated to the head.

"..... his management functions will be truly great and responsible, or infinitesimal, depending upon how he can influence or control the use of resources committed to his charge, how he can influence or control the objectives of his department". (Tolley 1972) (p 12)

Some attempts have been made to highlight some of the common managerial tasks of HOD's. One writer (Hicks 1975) points to the wide range of work that the HOD is responsible for, from servicing courses in other departments to administration, accommodation, equipment, technicians and teaching staff through to the academic side of the curriculum, consultancy, links with industry and shared control in some colleges through the Academic Board. Charlton, Gent and Scammels (1971) attempted to define the broad responsibilities into three categories of (i) teaching (ii) administration (iii) external-duties. However, even when responsibilities are defined there is -

"..... little evidence to illustrate exactly what, and how effectively, heads of departments do: job analysis in education is not well developed". (NATFHE 1977) (p 127)

Oxtoby (1979) in his valuable study into the role of HOD's points to the changes that have occurred in patterns of working over a period of time, the changes resulting in changed emphasis; from an over-emphasis on administration in the fifties and sixties to one involving considerable academic leadership in the eighties. The changing curriculum has tended to emphasise the professional authority, rather than the organisational authority, and the impact of academic

boards sees the HOD

"..... sandwiched between members of staff who wish to participate in decision-making and a principal who is eager to retain as much authority and control as possible". (Oxtoby 1979) (p 56)

The HOD has seen a political dimension added to his role. This change of emphasis has seen the necessity for HOD's to be aware of and to possess

"..... the subtle skills of staff motivation, team leadership and communication" (Oxtoby 1983) (p 56)

and the above will far outweigh in importance the more mundane skills of administration.

In the highly departmentalised structure of the typical college of further education, the HOD is seen very much as the typical "boss", responsible as far as staff are concerned with those aspects of work that determine working conditions. The HOD embodies the employer image determining conditions by control of the timetable and the setting of objectives and policy for the department. The HOD is concerned very much with man-management but in a difficult environment; difficult because the conditions of employment and contract of employment are negotiated by the LEA's with the unions at national level.

Not only is there debate about the organisational form to be

adopted (hierarchy or matrix) but also the roles of those who carry the managerial responsibility reveal tensions between the demands for academic leadership and for system management.

Direction

"Direction" entails establishing the purposes and objectives, and ensuring (by appropriate communication, etc) that these animate the people who perform the various roles.

Direction of staff touches upon the use of formal authority to guide sub-ordinates. Direction presupposes an overall set of objectives that will determine the purpose and direction of the institution. This set of general objectives, however determined, will be translated into a set of sub-objectives or departmental objectives. Formal authority is vested in the Principal and Heads of Departments by virtue of their positions. Their directive decisions, therefore, are accepted by virtue of their positions of authority, and "to be really successful the co-operation of every person in the organisation is needed.'

The task of determining and directing the way forward for the individual college and for F.E. generally has taken place against a large number of competing changes. (Holden, Fish and Smith 1941). These directive decisions once made serve as a basis for the guidance of action and each presupposes a standard of performance to be attained.

The devising of the broad purpose of the college originates with the expectations of society at the macro level and with the Board of Governors and Principal at the micro level. The function of the senior management component is then to translate the general objectives of the college into a series of sub-objectives for each and every department.

This task of determining and directing the way forward for the individual college and for FE generally has taken place against a large number of competing influences that have each sought to influence purpose and direction. The major impetuses for change in the system are coming from the external environment. The major curricula innovations have already been referred to on pages 58-63 representing as they do powerful forces with the ability to induce change and response in the FE environment.

Financial pressures have implications for budgets and policies and here FE is being subjected by government to additional pressures. The Consultative White Paper "Maintained Further Education: Financing, Governance and Law" (DES 1987) in its opening statement spells out the importance of the maintained further education sector to the economic well-being of the nation. The Government stresses its concern that such an important section of the educational effort should be "as effective and efficient as possible", and further that

".... there is scope for reform particularly in the way colleges are managed". (DES1987) (p 3)

The White Paper cites the recommendations of the recent report "Managing Colleges Efficiently" (1987) which confirmed the view that improvements were required "in efficiency and good management practice". The response from the Government has been to fine tune resources of funding to the colleges. From the colleges' point of view they have seen the change from sources of funding that were stable to funding arrangements that are unstable and complex. Proposals enshrined in the White Paper "Training for Jobs" (1984) greatly increased the involvement of the TA in the financial arrangements and sources of funding, making them to all intents and purposes a minority shareholder. This move has enabled the Government through the TA to influence more directly college policy and directions, by requesting development plans on a three year basis, an annual programme declaration - thus tying successful plans and bids to the allocation of finance.

The call of the Government for changes in further education centre on two concepts, "relevance to employment", and "value for money". The Government has used a variety of agencies and studies to support its case for change, notably the Institute of Manpower Studies (IMS) (1984) international comparative study "Competence and Competition"; the consultants Cooper and Lybrand's examination of management attitudes to vocational education and training "A Challenge

to Complacency"; and the Audit Commission's report "Obtaining Better Value from Further Education". The Commission sought to link efficiency with reasonable indicators of performance by which more effective comparison can be made of the efficiency of colleges. They concluded that there were opportunities for colleges to improve economy, efficiency and effectiveness (within the constraints established by the various national agreements). The Audit Commission Report however, was concerned with identifying indicators of cost-effectiveness and did not address itself to the question of quality.

The Training Agency has recently espoused an interest in quality in Work Related Non-Advanced Further Education (WRNAFE) and is about to address itself to the question of educational effectiveness. This, when it happens, will undoubtedly have important implications for college managers. According to a recent Further Education Unit (FEU) report, "Quality itself is a difficult and elusive concept to define but easy to recognise". (FEU 1987A) (p 4)

The educational process sees the learner as an important client served in the most professional way by adequately resourced teachers. To ensure quality in education the system must have adequate resources and the resources require to be efficiently and effectively managed within the college setting. The basic message here is that central to the delivery of a quality-related programme is the important element of the quality of the teaching and the quality of the

staff.

The years since the early 1960's have seen a growing formalisation and regularisation by central government of industrial relations. Rights for individuals within the work-place have been enshrined in legislation and codes of practice. The implication for management within the colleges is that they now require a far greater awareness of what they can and cannot do, and coupled with all the other demands of coping with change, a need is emerging for some specific help in this area. Education is a relative newcomer to the negotiating process.

Coupled with legislative changes have been changes in employees attitudes brought about by economic uncertainty, inflation and the wage freezes of the 1970's. This has resulted in moves by hitherto fairly docile professional bodies to move towards new forms for them of militancy manifesting itself in teacher strikes and working-to-rule. College management found itself in the centre of this, inadequately prepared to deal with collective negotiations, grievances procedures and strikes.

The response to change requires of management that it reacts by re-assessing purpose and re-formulating the sub-objectives through the function of direction.

Control

The "control" function of management sees the exercise of authority to keep the system within bounds, relying in its execution upon selection, supervision and incentive. Historically industro-commercial organisations have relied upon these in sequence. The F.E. colleges have hitherto relied on selection only, assuming professional competence to perform the required tasks and accepting that all that will be necessary in the execution of the job will be a minimum amount of supervision. But this is changing.

The concept of control within the theory set out by Tannenbaum (1961) is conceived as "the use of formal authority to assure the attainment of purpose by the methods or procedures which have been devised". It requires the prior determination of the degree of specialisation required within the college, and then matching the degree of specialisation required to the individuals that constitute the group or units. Selecting the staff to match the specialised roles, training/developing them for their roles and providing a basis for motivating staff by a system of incentives, are alternative approaches to the discharge of the function.

Control involves the matching of individuals to the specialised services offered by the organisation. Broadly two strategies exist to fulfil this requirement.

- (i) the organisation can recruit from outside or
- (ii) it can develop its staff from within.

In reality both strategies are utilized. A characteristic feature of teaching as a profession is that in the process of selection basic competence is assumed to have been acquired during the training period and the process of selection involves an assessment of such intangible factors as, character, personality and temperament. However, a distinguishing feature of the FE system is that in the processes of selection no assumption of basis competence to teach can be assumed because it is possible for staff to be engaged without teaching qualifications.

However, having selected individuals for specialized roles in the college, managers are faced with the task of creating those conditions that maximize the motivation of the individuals; it is not just enough to find individuals who are capable, "ability must be supplemented by strong motivation." (Tannenbaum 1961). This will inevitably involve a consideration of the uncertainties that are used to regulate and secure the involvement of individuals. As part of management's response the system of promotion in FE will be examined later.

In the execution of tasks undoubtedly some individuals will fall short of expectations. The directive function sees the setting of standards of performance in the execution of

tasks. This provides the yardstick for achieving attainment of goals and will inevitably involve "supervision". Through the process of appraisal or evaluation of performance against standards deficiencies will be identified that will need remedial assistance. Management will then find itself involved with appraisal of performance and the attendant staff development function.

(i) Recruitment and Selection

A unique feature of local government, under which the control of education falls, is the involvement of the Board of Governors in the selection process. Prior to the Education Reform Act the main and traditional area for the involvement of the elected member in employment was that of staff selection and promotion, areas in which they maintained control. The attitudes portrayed were ones of patronage, stemming from a desire to promote social welfare and social justice. Members reveal a strong sense of personal commitment and concern for the interests of the society which they serve. This might well be one of the reasons why elected members consider the appointment and promotion of staff to be their prerogative and domain, and why local authorities have been reluctant to delegate to personnel officers many of the functions which industrial/commercial enterprises have readily functionalised.

The primary selection tool within education is the selection interview. As a means of selecting potential employees it is

generally accepted that the selection interview is ill-defined and inadequate, and as the sole means of selecting staff it has many disadvantages. Much research data is available on the use of the interview in industry but available research data on the selection interview in education is severely limited. Despite the fact that the evidence of research suggests the interview is the least effective method of assessing people, it remains the most popular. This popularity derives from a technique that is easy to administer. To most people it seems apparent that no specific training is needed, and everybody feels that they are "experts" at assessing character.

A number of education studies conclude that a great deal of dissatisfaction exists amongst educationalists with the current usage of the selection interview as currently practised. Nicolson (1968) found that interviewing panels lacked detailed knowledge of the post they were appointing to. He points out that where the most expensive item of expenditure - staff - is involved, "special qualifications on the part of the interviewer and special training for undertaking the task of interviewing is not considered". In many instances interviewing panels have become better at interviewing by 'doing' and by learning from mistakes, but "the fact remains that the selection of the interviewers themselves is not done on a rational basis and nothing is done to ensure efficient interviewing, with the result that the quality of interviewing varies considerably from one college to another". The research concludes that the

procedures for appointing staff in the colleges are not ideal.

Hilsum and Start's (1974) enquiries into participants' reactions to procedures, found widespread dissatisfaction with interview procedures. More recently Bradley and Silverleaf's (1979) study of staff in further education found a wide variety of procedures and widespread dissatisfaction with them. This survey confirmed the earlier finding of Nicolson that many people on the interviewing panels lacked a detailed knowledge of the post they were selecting for, and they also observed that many of the questions asked were "superficial and highly subjective".

Morgan et al (1982), looked at the selection of secondary school heads, but their finding that widespread dissatisfaction with selection procedures existed is applicable to further education because basically the same system applies. This piece echoed the earlier researches of widespread dissatisfaction with selection procedures. They commented on the absence of job descriptions and specifications, found evidence of political conflict between the various selector groups and the continuing existence of patronage; appointment decisions when they were reached, were unsympathetic, misleading and often chaotic. The interview was marked by elimination of candidates depending on social negotiation, encompassing bargaining, trade-offs and compromise.

Attempts have been made to lay down model procedures that seek to improve the system, that lead to greater 'fairness' and the removal of bias. NATFHE (1977) produced a draft policy of appointments and review procedures, but such 'models' are little more than "advice based on good practice" Boyd-Barrett (1983).

The selection process represents probably the most important single control function of management. Mistakes at this stage cause innumerable problems and remedial actions later. As colleges move towards devolved powers under the Education Reform Act and progressively assume responsibility for this function, they will increasingly be thrown upon their own devices to get this aspect of management right. The way forward in this area might be to look outside education for a solution.

(ii) Promotion

Promotion as an issue in further education, as in other occupations, is fraught with difficulties and where research into promotion has taken place in the further education system the conclusions reached point to widespread dissatisfaction and lack of any uniform system. Criteria for promotion appears obscure to staff, there seems to be no pattern to promotions, and very few colleges have written guidelines on which to base promotion NFER (1979).

Broadly speaking two characteristics influence an

individual's chances of promotion. Firstly, the structural characteristics of the profession and its accepted procedures for dealing with promotion, affect staff equally. The second is the individual's personal characteristics.

The structural characteristics are very often beyond the influence of the individual and include such things as the Burnham grading of work, which in turn determines the percentage of promoted posts to which a college is entitled. The 'establishment' is the number and grade of posts within the college and this is determined by the volume of student hours that the college generates and is calculated on a yearly basis. Where the relative number of senior posts are held by people who are likely to remain in them for some time, a mobility blockage can occur, which means that promotion opportunities are reduced. The grading of work favours work of an advanced nature in that the higher paid posts are generated by an increase of higher category work. This militates against the small college with lower level work and reduces promotion prospects. The individual in the system is unable to influence this situation. Any improvement that has been affected, and recently two have been wrought, have been achieved by nationally negotiated changes in the conditions of service. The introduction of automatic transfer from lecturer grade II to senior lecturer where that member of staff is teaching more than 50% of advanced category work, and where he/she also meets the efficiency criteria, produced a short-term solution. More recently the current pay award has merged the

lecturer I and lecturer II scales to produce the lecturer grade which effectively gave a financial rise to those lecturers who were stuck at the top of the lecturer I scale with little hope of progressing to the lecturer II scale.

Another structural characteristic that causes dissatisfaction is the existence of a linear career structure, where promotion to the top of the hierarchy depends upon the individual teacher leaving the classroom to take on as a price of promotion, more administrative duties.

Bradley and Silverleaf (1979) in their survey of staff perceptions of the operation of promotion systems within further education colleges in England and Wales highlighted some of the main points of criticism by staff. Essentially the main point expressed was that staff maintained there was a lack of congruence in their perceptions of the criteria for promotion. The criteria used were in many instances obscure. The views of those surveyed reflected high levels of dissatisfaction within the profession and are in urgent need of re-appraisal.

No study of promotion should fail to take note of the research of Stouffer et al (1965) into promotion prospects and expectations in the American Armed Forces during World War II. The studies as such looked at the links between morale and the combat effectiveness of the soldiers, concluding in its simplest overview, that soldiers did not evaluate their positions in accord with absolute objective

standards, but on the basis of their relative position vis-a-vis others around them. Regarding promotion, Stouffer found that soldiers judged the fairness of the promotion system on the basis of their own experience relative to others around them. If this is so, then studies such as Bradley and Silverleaf where pessimism about the promotion system was found, Tipton's (1973) enquiry which similarly found dissatisfaction with promotion, where the "importance of luck, gimmicks, able to sell oneself or ingratiate oneself with superiors";(p 62) Nicolson's (1983) analysis of a college where he considered that "..... in only two of the colleges (out of the sixteen surveyed) are staff given full and clear information on what the policy is", and further Davies' (1973) survey which found "..... a great deal of inter-staff conflict and loss of corporate morale is often generated because of status differences, varying work-loads and the inability to devise sound principles and criteria for promotion". (p 127) All reveal a need to look carefully at this aspect and to effect some changes.

Perhaps Katz (1955) points the way to improvement when he concedes the importance of promotion as a management function considering the assessment of human skills in the organisation to be based on highly subjective evaluations, and to be thoroughly dependent upon the skills of the evaluator. Recognising the importance of subjective judgements, Katz claims that the way forward would see the development of people with the human skills to make judgements effectively.

(iii) Staff Appraisal

Staff, as the major resource and as the largest element of cost, have to be encouraged and supported in ways that will enable them to meet the new challenges and to adapt to change. Specifically staff have been expected to extend their professionalism to include marketing skills, to enhance their knowledge of their subject areas and to meet the changes brought about by computer technology, to take into account resource allocation, to bring about curriculum development and alternative teaching strategies and to promote college-employer links. How are these changes to be achieved?

To bring about change a number of actions are needed. Commitment by senior management to staff development and a coherent system is required. Adequate resources are to be made available, linked to a staff development plan that is itself implemented, monitored and evaluated. The staffing perspective sees a needs analysis being generated from the 'bottom up', which has as an essential element a staff development or appraisal interview.

The efficiency and job satisfaction of staff is vital to the effectiveness of the college, yet to assess that efficiency and satisfaction, colleges must be able to evaluate and assess what they do, and have in place mechanisms for reviewing and enhancing the motivation and performance of staff. Yet colleges in Great Britain, unlike most of Europe,

Canada and America, do not have systematic arrangements for the appraisal of staff. The immediate question to ask is Why? In answer to this question a number of differing perspectives present themselves.

Some forms of assessment have always been present in education. As early as the nineteenth century payment by results was an early attempt to link classroom performance to pay. Colleges frequently use examination results, drop out rates from classes, as crude indicators of performance. But no systematic method of evaluation exists. The present Government aware of this situation through the 1986 Education No 2 Act, has sought to bring in regulations "requiring local education authorities and others to secure the regular appraisal of teachers in schools and further education establishments". The Act allows the Secretary of State to prescribe performance appraisal systems by all LEA's if he so wishes, but in all probability highly detailed schemes will not be imposed providing LEA's comply with the regulations and certain conditions are met, for example, the results of appraisals are made known to staff, a system of appeal exists and cognizance of results of appraisals are taken into account when staff are considered for promotion etc.

Two underlying philosophies support the concept of staff appraisal. The one stresses the professional development of the individual, the other is concerned with the assessment of standards, the overall evaluation of the performance of the college and the way in which it discharges its

responsibilities to its customers - employers and students. Appraisal within this latter context is seen to be "an instrument for the improved management of the teaching force" and "a means of improving educational standards". (Wilkinson (1985)). This dimension takes us into the realm of utilisation and deployment of resources and an assessment of their effective and efficient use. The Audit Commission (1985) has focussed upon the cost-effectiveness of the further education system and its report highlighted amongst other things the absence of appraisal mechanisms as a source of managerial weakness.

A number of obstacles to the implementation of appraisal exists, and they can be viewed really as weaknesses in the system. Staff have displayed great caution towards appraisal linking it with staff discipline and incompetence. Until recently there have been no national disciplinary procedures in further education. This absence of procedures has meant that staff have been reluctant to be involved in appraisal because it has been viewed as possible covert disciplinary procedures. The adoption of a national arrangement should go some way to remove this obstacle. (A nationally agreed disciplinary procedure was published by the National Joint Council for Further Education Teachers in England and Wales in 1986.)

Another inconsistency has been the existence of a national scheme for dismissing staff without any scheme for dealing with discipline.

Appraisal as a management control instrument cannot exist in isolation, it is inextricably tied to other mechanisms which are linked to ensuring the quality of performance of the workforce. Elements of the total package include systematic recruitment and selection, job definitions and job descriptions, probation and induction. Scribbins and Walton (1987) found little evidence of these procedures in further education.

Currently a great deal of interest exists in appraisal. The initiatives of Government however are a symptom not the cause. Appraisal must be seen amongst the other changes taking place in further education mentioned earlier and it must be noted that it is inextricably linked with techniques of resource, personnel and marketing management. Interest exists but little progress has been made.

(iv) Staff Development

The absence of quality is easier to determine than its presence, yet the delivery of a quality programme is essential to the survival of the college. Staff development is seen to be central to the response by the college to its environment and to its ensuring that the learning experiences offered to its students are of the highest quality. Staff development then is about

"..... improving the efficiency and quality of student learning and should therefore focus on improving or extending the ability of staff to undertake specified roles in relation to the delivery of the curriculum". (FEU 1987) (p 1)

The time has gone when initial training equipped a teacher for the rest of his working life. It is now generally accepted that staff development is a constant process that is seen within the context of a continuing professional development. Yet that has not always been the case. Until more recent times whatever staff development that took place arose from the desire of individuals within the colleges to improve their professional competences with a view to advancement within the profession. This is a position that is supported by Tomlinson (1986), who states that

"..... there is a lack of effective Staff Development plans within many institutions. Where there are existing policies, these are frequently not implemented as intended. Insufficient thought and resources are devoted to the hard work of translating plans into action". (Tomlinson 1986) (p 6)

More recently a survey by Her Majesty's Inspectors (NAFE 1987), supports the view that staff development most often is dependent upon individual initiative and

"..... was rarely a systematic college process which identified course or personal development needs. In particular, it was unusual to find an overall college policy for staff development in the use of information technology or the use of more effective teaching and learning methods" (NAFE 1987) (p 57-58)

Hitherto resources for staff development have generally been regarded as inadequate. Marsh (1982) maintained that "Insufficient money, staff and space are available in colleges". (p 228) The question of poorly motivated staff

has been raised (Marsh 1982), arising from poor staff morale exacerbated by diminishing career prospects, an ageing population and unwillingness of many staff to take part in developmental activities. The pressure for change brought about by the initiatives listed below has created special development needs for staff.

Rapidly changing educational needs; national initiatives like GCSE, TVEI, CPVE; off the job training provision for YTS and Employment Training, tertiary education, the re-definition of WRNAFE and the mis-match between college provision the demands of national employment skills needs, the impact of new technology, the re-definition of national vocational qualifications and assessment of competences, are all impacting upon the curriculum and it has become imperative that a more systematic and planned response is necessary to staff development; it can no longer be left to the undirected whims of the individual in the system. Confirmation of this view can be found in the Macfarlane Report (1980) which noted that staff development should be a vital aspect in enabling colleges to respond to new ways of training.

The turning point was reached when new funding arrangements were instituted. DES Circular 6/86 and its successor 9/87 initiated the new grant arrangements for staff development - INSET. LEA's were now required to produce staff development plans, determine priorities and implement and evaluate staff development programmes. The new arrangements will cause many LEA's to re-examine their commitment to staff training and to

plan their programmes in line with nationally determined priority areas. The future pattern of staff development will see a move away from an investment in the individual to a model that advocates a greater number of staff being involved in a needs-based short course provision aiming to balance the needs of the individual and professional advancement with institutional utilitisation.

"The model is likely to become a developmental rather than merely a deficiency model. Staff development policy, both from the LEA perspective, and from the respective college will in the future need to be pro-active rather than reactive". (WJEC 1988) (p 4)

DES Circular 6/86 will see LEA's producing detailed and comprehensive staff development plans. That is not to say that plans have not existed before in LEA's. Many LEA's attached great importance to staff development and "there is much evidence of good practice", but staff development "has rarely been planned across the whole education service", and in many instances has not been integrated with other formal management processes (FEU 1987).

A further element in the process, the county-based advisory services, have not been involved in the provision in the colleges. Whilst the advisory services have been active in the schools sector, staff development has been left to the individual colleges.

The change in direct grant initiatives has seen the emergence of development plans that cover both schools and further

education and have linked them to new developments in the curriculum. Already one of the Welsh Counties has re-organised its advisory service into a re-named County Staff Development Unit, with every school and college possessing a nominated staff development officer (SDO) whose function it is to identify individual and institutional needs and through the college SDO, to feed them to the central staff development unit at county level. The staff development officer, it is envisaged, will have a dual role - namely pastoral responsibility allied to curriculum-led staff development.

A successful staff development programme will involve a staff development policy statement at authority level, reflected in the individual colleges, with a staff development plan for the implementation of policy. That plan should then be turned into an annual programme that will detail staff development activities. For staff development to be effective it presupposes the commitment of management to ensure that the management of the curriculum, the college and the staff is a single, co-ordinated and integrated management process.

The renewed interest at national level and the allocation and control of funds to sustain a staff development initiative highlights the importance of staff development as a management control mechanism. Staff development it has been realized is too important to be left to chance, it needs systematic analysis, planning and co-ordination.

Shaping Forces

The underlying rationale for the existence of the further education system is the education/training of students. During expansionist periods it is possible for the college in its response to ignore the drive for quality because survival does not depend upon giving a good service. At times when demand outstrips supply students are waiting in the queue for places that are vacated. A constant supply of numbers to fill places ensures growth, and with continuing growth comes increased promotion opportunities, expansion and other rewards. However, the winds of change are beginning to blow through the corridors of the further education system in the late 1980's forcing colleges to look more closely at those pressures, influences and movements present in the environment, and requiring of the system some positive response if it is to survive. The mid-1980's is seeing a change from growth to contraction and the attendant responses needed to cope with change to ensure survival.

Cumulatively, as we have seen a number of very important changes are taking place at the macro level, and these changes are having dramatic implications for the further education system; colleges are reacting as part of their strategy for survival. The Government's view is that vocational education is not a marginal activity but that it is central to the economic growth and prosperity of the nation (cf White Paper 1985 Cmnd 9482). It is understandable therefore that the Government, through its various agencies,

is exerting pressure on the further education system to make certain changes in line with government policy.

Changes in employment patterns - of the de-skilling in many occupations, the impact of new technology, the decline of the traditional apprenticeship system, the loss of jobs in areas traditionally served by further education, have caused the system to question its very existence and to consider its response.

A feature of recent government policy has been to bring about a contraction in public spending. Coupled with "falling rolls" into the early 1990's, the response from further education must be to plan for levels of resources that can be expected to diminish significantly. At the same time further education is being pressured to become more cost-conscious and to devise means whereby that efficiency can be measured. It will no longer be possible to justify the existence of further education by saying that it provides value for money, those responsible for the system are going to be expected to demonstrate in the hard language of the accountant, that they are providing value for money.

The difficulties for the colleges is that they have to be flexible, adaptable and accommodating to an external environment while still retaining an internal stability that is marked by professionally committed staff, with high levels of motivation and morale.

Further education colleges in the face of these pressures are being encouraged to examine their purpose and to respond. The responses in part are to be found in changes within the colleges themselves, because in the last analysis "that is still where it all happens".

The management roles and tasks of individuals are set in an unstable environment. A recent FEU project "Coping with Crisis" (1989) in a questionnaire survey of two hundred college staff highlighted the majority of the 'critical incidents' in their survey, as being those most frequently associated with staff - the major problem relating to 'constant change' and its effect on staff morale. The project in reporting the views of the top management surveyed, referred to their problems of coping with external agencies, their concern over the use and acquisition of resources, and lastly, the impact of change - externally imposed change, internal structural change and curriculum innovation. These all have implications for staff management

"The most frequently mentioned task was, therefore not surprisingly, motivation of staff to change and to undertake staff development". (FEU 1989) (p 45)

The success of any college activity is largely determined by the well-being, skill and motivation of the human side of the college. Managing the human organisation is central to college management in that other aspects of college success are dependent upon how well this is done. Greenaway and Harding (1978) consider that it is important that staff

"..... are chosen carefully and nurtured in order to ensure maximum benefit be gained from them." (Greenaway and Harding 1978) (p 77)

This will involve placing the job satisfaction of the employee as one of the major college objectives. The Local Authorities Conditions of Service Advisory Board (1978) in evaluating the employer-employee relationship in local government asserts that

"The satisfaction of the employee in doing a good job contributes to the successful implementation of the policies of the employer and the effectiveness of his undertaking. Conversely, the anxieties, frustrations and failures of employees in their working environment can diminish the effectiveness of the organisation". (LACSAB 1978)

If the purpose of the college is to be served then it is essential that the services of all individuals are engaged. The management functions of organisation, direction, control are essential to the smooth running of the college and its continuing survival.

CHAPTER 5

Personnel Management Models

There is considerable advocacy and some experience which suggests that the two models of labour control strategy identified in Chapter 2, have relevance to the F.E. sector. Some of this is American, some British.

The American Experience

The concept and role of personnel management in industry and commerce is well-documented and the British and American literature extensive. However, while there have been many American studies on the role and function of personnel management within education, the British literature on personnel management within education is scant. The American literature reports a wealth of available research on the personnel function in the Junior or Community College, which is the nearest in kind to the British college of further education. An examination of the Dissertation Abstracts International reveals that the subject and scope of the American studies are wide-ranging. Foucar (1970) dates the interest in personnel management relevance to education in America from the 1940's on. He claims that it was

"During the 1940's considerable research and formal thought was given to the development of personnel practices in education, as evidenced by the increased number of research articles published in the 'Review of Educational Research'".
(Foucar 1970) (p 26)

An examination of the entries in the Comprehensive Dissertation Index 1861-1972 reveals a large number of entries under personnel management that seek to examine the transposition of selected personnel policies and practices developed in industry to education. Foucar's aim was "to compare the professional personnel policies and practices in industry and education". Similar objectives can be found in Payne (1967), Johnson (1966), Harkness (1963), Stevens (1957) and Yang (1957). Walworth (1973) noting the importance of the personnel function in the American Community College argues for the appointment of a staff personnel officer and proceeds to define the role as one that possesses a coordinating function, independent of any area of interest in the college, in charge of official staff records, coordinating recruitment and selection, acting as advisor and counsellor, but most importantly, "the personnel director must be the catalyst in developing a staff which gives each student a meaningful experience". Support for the role of staff personnel officer can be found in Harkness (1963) who maintained that

"Regardless of the size of the institution or the number of its employees, the responsibility for its employee relations should be centred in a single administrative officer where the number of employees is too small to warrant a separate personnel officer, the administrative duties may be performed by the officer in charge of student aid or the placement service". (Harkness 1963) (p 12)

The American experience has evinced a need to recognize the importance of personnel management in the college setting.

Personnel Management - the British Experience

Within the British educational system the role and function of personnel management is extremely limited. Where it has been established within the universities and polytechnics, it relates to the administrative and ancillary staff only, and has no significant involvement with academic staff. In the FE sector, it exists at the LEA level, but has little impact on academic staff.

A number of British writers refer to the need for application of general management principles to education and several authors have asserted that good management practice should exist in colleges. Further, it is maintained that there is a definite need for much closer attention to the application of management techniques in all spheres of education. cf Hughes (1970), Nelson (1970), Davies (1975), Thomas (1974), Gray (1974), Glatter (1972), are but a few (see Appendix 2).

Some British writers on and observers of the educational experience have suggested that 'aspects' of personnel management should be more overtly recognised and practised. Few researchers have addressed themselves to the issue of the relevance of personnel management to education in the further education sector.

The Index to Theses Accepted for Higher Degrees in the Universities of Great Britain and Ireland (ASLIB) reveals that no research has been conducted specifically in this

area, but that a number of investigations have been carried out that:

- 1 Analyse the organisational characteristics of the further education college.
- 2 Look specifically at management in its widest sense and its operation in the further education college.

See Fraser (1978), Moore (1973), Phillips (1975), Nicolson (1968), Tipton (1970) in Appendix 3.

Kelso (1978) has examined staff development. Turner (1980) has looked at the role of teacher unionism in further education and Marsden (1975) has examined the effects of Circular 7/70 "The Government and conduct of establishments of further education" on technical college administration, Davies (1973) has produced a very useful in-depth analysis of collective bargaining and industrial relations machinery in technical colleges.

The Further Education Staff College has produced a large number of information papers on such activities as recruitment and selection, staff appraisal, job descriptions, manpower planning, motivation theory, staff development and organisational climate. A review of the Staff College reports reveals an interest in college personnel management.

Report of the Study Conference 70/6 (1970) entitled, "College Personnel Management" sought to consider

"..... one aspect of the organisation of the college which is the concern of principals and vice-principal, that is the relations between them and their staff and the relations between the institution and its staff the nature of these relations affects significantly the efficiency of the institution the value of having a professional to deal with this specialised function of management".(FESC 1970) (pl)

Another study conference in June 1972 took up the theme of an overview of the college personnel function, in a conference dealing with college administration for principals and vice-principals, FESC (1972). Yet another conference in 1976 on 'staffing' was devoted in part to aspects of college personnel policies, FESC (1976).

The work of Bradley and Silverleaf (1979) evaluated staff development provision in further education colleges in England and Wales. Their main objective was to investigate the complexities of staff development in practice and to examine underlying questions about policy and implementation. In their conclusions and recommendations they recognised the need for staff to be trained in appraisal techniques, that job descriptions should be an essential feature of college management systems, that there was a great deal of room for improvement in the selection process and that appropriate induction programmes ought to be devised for all new staff.

Antia (1976) specified 'Critical Success Factors' that are vital to the successful management of the educational

institution. His strategy was to identify those areas of organisational performance that are considered vital for survival and growth and to develop management practices, processes and performance measures that contributed to the potential for an effective and efficiently managed college. Postulated as his 'critical success factors' are:- social tune, cost effectiveness, course development, corporate reputation, investment in human capital, development of physical facilities, student relations, employee relations, public responsibility. Of particular relevance to this study is the inclusion in the list of 'investing in human capital' and 'employee relations'. In trying to assess the performance of the college, Antia maintains that management needs to focus on these factors as "portents for survival and growth", and further that it is important to have personnel policies that enable high quality staff to be recruited, motivated, rewarded and developed, in the interest of the individual and the organisation.

The report of the ACSET Education Management Working Group (1984), to which reference has already been made, suggests certain key topics for inclusion in management development training for senior college personnel. The significance of this study is that the report highlights certain key personnel management functions:

- * manpower planning and development
- * management of resources
- * management of change

- * inter-personal skills
- * staff relations and legislation

and recommends that they form an essential part of any training programme for managers or potential managers within the further education system.

Hollyhock (1982) sees the crucial management role in further education as that of middle management, and in examining the dynamism of that role maintains that the quality required of middle managers for the 1980's will be not so much academic qualities, but rather managerial ability, and most particularly the skills and attributes offered by personnel managers.

Another important study is the Post Project. Although the project was concerned more specifically with the school system, it has relevance for this study. The project surveyed the selection process of secondary school heads in England and Wales, and its resultant conclusions highlighted a number of specific weaknesses that are relevant here-

- * insufficient attention and resources given to the selection process
- * systematic assessment was not possible because selectors were so varied in competence
- * little use was made of selection expertise from industry or business
- * there was over-reliance on traditional methods, particularly the interview
- * alternative procedures were not explored

A specific recommendation of the project that was deemed to be highly desirable was that

"..... within each LEA at least one senior officer or adviser with special training in and knowledge of selection techniques for senior management who would have designated responsibility for secondary headteacher selection". (Morgan and Hall 1982) (p 149)

Morgan in his conclusion to the project argues for training in what amounts to personnel techniques for officers responsible for headteacher selection. He refers specifically to the need for skills in drawing up job analysis, performance appraisal, job descriptions etc. It was stated that nothing along these lines exists in education and the way forward, according to the project, was for the LEA's to use the expertise in their own personnel departments at County Hall.

Travers (1976) presents a contrary professional view when he maintains that college management should be responsible for the personnel work in the college, that management has its own need for personnel knowledge and personnel advice in order that efficient use is made of the staff for whom they are responsible. Travers maintains that

"..... no expert in County Hall should be permitted to take over the responsibility for personnel work in your own colleges". (Travers 1976) (p 88)

More precise support for the above view can be found in the views of Pritchett (1975), a director of education for a

metropolitan district in England. The essence of his argument is that personnel at County Hall do not understand the work of the school and college, and whilst the personnel officer can cope with the demands of the mainly administrative and clerical staffing requirements of County Hall, they have insufficient knowledge of the precise and complex educational workings of the school or college.

The present position sees a great deal of research and interest in the application of personnel management to the college situation in America. In Britain, there is plenty of evidence of interest in the application of general management principles, and the beginnings of an interest in the management of staff and specifically personnel management. The FEU report by East (1987) raised the issues of one aspect of further and higher education's management support systems - the personnel function, but no systematic research into formalized personnel management along the lines of the extensive American literature exists.

In circumstances of change, the proactive (or positive) management of staff is arguably a necessary condition of survival.

Personnel Management Support Systems - the Benefits

The American studies suggest that the application of personnel management techniques can go some way to bring about effective and efficient use of staff resources.

Certainly by comparison with much of industry, colleges' maintenance support systems are primitive (Everard 1986). It is being suggested that the recognition of the important contribution that personnel management can make to the operation of the college, creates those conditions under which people give of their best. American studies postulate a number of benefits.

Administrative effectiveness is seen by Sergiovanni and Carver (1973) to be dependent upon enlightened personnel policies.

"..... which have the potential to provide meaningful satisfaction for school members and stimulate extraordinary performance on behalf of school goals. Personnel functions are fundamental to school success, for staff growth and development, and student growth and development are inter-dependent".(Sergiovanni and Carver 1973) (p 108)

The National Commission on Teacher Education in the USA echoes the same thought when they reported in 1957 that

"As the requirements made of teachers become more vigorous, greater premium is placed upon the importance of having better personnel policies and procedures".(p 3)

The findings of Foucar's research lead to the conclusion firstly that personnel policies and practices in industry provided some policies and practices that could improve the effectiveness of the educational enterprise, and secondly, that many professional personnel policies in industry are similar to policies in education.

Griffiths (1972) sees the formulation of a personnel policy as an essential part of the management function. A sound personnel policy leads to high levels of staff morale and a highly productive learning environment, leading to the development of good human relations.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1971) attribute the success of the educational organisation to the skill with which the management develops the human resources which it controls.

"Managing the human organisation is central to school (college) administration in that other aspects of school (college) success are dependent upon how well this is done". (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1971) (p 151)

Spayde (1952) reports that an improved instructional programme for students was one of the benefits of well-written professional personnel policies, but that personnel policies themselves do not directly cause such improvements. More satisfying inter-personal relationships which are permitted by the presence of these policies are seen to be the important intervening variable. His research indicates that the effectiveness and efficiency of teachers can be improved by creating satisfactory inter-personal relationships.

The American experience then sees the concept of personnel management embedded in the management structure of the college system. The research mentioned previously by way of example, has made comparative, historical and analytical approaches to the role and function of personnel management within the college environment.

However, King (1973) sounds a warning about the relevance of American studies to the solution of British problems. He questions the relevance of American studies because of the differing concepts of the educational organisation held in the two societies and the different historical developments.

"..... the results of American studies must be regarded as having only a limited potential validity in the British setting".(King 1973) (p 423)

King's note is a cautionary one of a general nature, admitting as he does that cross-cultural comparison may reveal significant differences between the two systems, but he feels that such comparisons do not adequately explain the special features of each separate system.

If the American experience has relevance for the British scene, and if, as we shall see later the nature of F.E. is changing towards a more marketing orientated strategy, then it can be construed that the translation of personnel management techniques into the F.E. sector can have relevance. The choice of what form will undoubtedly be influenced by the particular structures, culture and political climate and furthermore the acceptability to college staffs of a model that can be seen to bring benefits to the smooth operation of the college.

A model that it is thought will be appropriate is that of Human Resource Management.

Human Resource Management-- the emerging alternative

It seems that up to the mid 1970's the growth and spread of the specialist personnel manager was the response made by many firms to the formalisation of the personnel role especially in respect of industrial relations, and its separation from line management, as outlined above, was an important feature of modern management.

However, the major recession which has afflicted the UK since the 1970's has produced some difficulties for personnel management. Personnel management grew in a period of high employment as part of an expansionary trend. The recession with its accompanying levels of high unemployment has caused a major examination of all managerial roles to be made, and coupled with a failure of personnel management to gain the necessary authority for success in its role, Legge and Exley (1975) and its own periodic crises of confidence in itself [Legge (1978), Watson (1977), Tyson (1979), Copping and Pickles (1981), Thurley (1981)], senior management itself has begun to question its relevance and credibility in its present form.

It is being suggested that the personnel management model is inappropriate to the further education sector because of a number of factors. U.K. industry itself has begun to question the relevance of personnel management in its specialist form and those reservations would apply equally to education.

The contention in this present study is being forwarded that the imposition of another specialist role into a system that is characterized by strong forms of autonomous working and professional modes of operation would meet with strong resistance. The dominant hierarchical form of the departmental structure would largely negate the imposition of a specialist personnel officer, perhaps relegating the function to the "trash-can" view (Tyson 1985). This would see the personnel officer concentrating on the basics of routine activity. This view has the benefit of clarity of relationships with line management, but the greatest disadvantage of failing "to contribute to the major decisions in the business," being in essence a tool of operational management.

Despite the growth in personnel management over the years, the most striking feature of British industry is that responsibility for personnel management remains in the hands of non-specialists. This was the conclusion that emerged from a major study by Daniel (1983) of 2,040 establishments employing 25 or more people and covering public services, private services, nationalized industries and manufacturing, and was the situation in three-quarters of the workplaces covered. These findings must surely strengthen the relevance of a human resources management model that seeks to strengthen the responsibility of the line manager for personnel and one that seeks to integrate all employees in to the accomplishment of organisational objectives.

A human resources management model (which is currently not well-established in traditional industry) places the emphasis on the development of a total resource management strategy, involves less role fractionalization, but aims at greater commitment to the solution of the organisation's problem and the prosecution of its tasks.

The 1980's is seeing an alternative model emerging in the form of Human Resource Management (HRM). Currency was given to this emerging alternative by the Hayes Committee Report on "Training for the Management of Human Resources" (1972), when it opened up the possibility that HRM was something different from specialist personnel management. Significantly, HRM was seen as a re-emergence by generalist line management of its responsibility for managing human as well as material and financial resources.

Almost all the writing and advocacy for HRM has come from the USA, but the factors that have given rise to its emergence in the USA are just as relevant to the UK. One factor is the widespread belief that "personnel managers have failed to promote the potential benefits of effective management of people". (Skinner 1981) Another contributory pressure has been attributed to the changing economic and political climate of the USA and the UK and the reduction in trade union pressure on management. It has been suggested by Guest (1987) that "this has facilitated a switch in emphasis away from collective and adversarial issues associated with

traditional industrial relations towards individual, co-operative issues of the sort associated with human resource management". As the workforce becomes better educated they are more able to understand business decisions resulting in higher expectations on their part and increasing demands made upon management. Fombrun and Devanna (1984) have argued that a major economic recession has highlighted the importance to survival of the firm of retaining a competitive advantage in world markets. This they maintain can best be achieved by seeking improvements in the management of people and organisational structures. Lastly, it is maintained that the success of the Japanese and many of the 'excellent' companies identified by Peters and Waterman (1982) can be in part, attributed to their practice of human resource management. By way of a ryder, it must be stated that HRM represents one view to the management of the workforce, however, other approaches are equally legitimate and are likely to succeed in certain contexts, for example traditional personnel management.

If an enhanced emphasis on the human resource is to take place in further education then the form of a possible model will need to be delineated. It is being suggested at this point that the most appropriate model is one based on the characteristics of human resource management (HRM).

Whether either of the models outlined has anything to contribute to an effective and efficient F.E. sector depends upon whether the college can be regarded as sufficiently

comparable to the industro-commercial organisation in which both developed.

The College as a Quasi-Industrial Setting

The crucial question is whether good industrial management practice can have a relevance for educational management. Those qualities of organisation that distinguish the college from the industrial milieu, while important, are arguably minimal, when it comes to assessing the transposition of a set of practices from one setting to another. The contention is that the management tasks in the "competitive college" are the same as those of the manager in industry. This commonality was stressed by Barr-Greenfield (1970) when he stated that "whatever their titles, their tasks are always the same".(p 72)

Where it is accepted that a college falls within the accepted conventions of competitive organisation characteristics, we find agreement among commentators that organisational theory can provide useful knowledge about colleges, in the same way that it provides knowledge of other kinds of organisation. Griffiths (1964) reinforces this view and further opposes the view that

"..... educational activity is a unique activity differing greatly from business, military, hospital and other varieties of administration".(Griffiths 1964) (p 3)

He endorses the idea of a general theory

"..... which enables the researcher to describe, explain and predict a wide range of human behaviour within organisations".(Griffiths 1964) (p 3)

An examination of organisational theory reveals some of the similarities and dissimilarities that exist between the college as an organisation and industrial models of organisations. Fundamental disagreements exist however, among organisational theorists about what constitutes an organisation, it is perhaps not too much of an oversimplification to suggest that theorists espouse two opposing viewpoints.

Academics and researchers like Halpin (1950), Campbell (1957), Milstein and Belasco (1973) have leaned heavily in their writings on the belief that a general science of organisations has provided the needed theoretical underpinning for understanding educational organisations. The underlying assumption of their theory of organisations is that organisations are subject to universal laws and that organisations belong to a single species which behave in predictable ways according to common laws.

The alternative view sees organisations, "not as structures subject to universal laws but as cultural artefacts dependent upon the specific meaning and intention of people within them" Barr-Greenfield (1970). A fundamental contention of this view (termed phenomenology) is that there are no fixed ways of construing the social world around us. Organisations are not so much an expression of universal ideas and values,

but rather the product of a particular setting and particular circumstances and any attempt to understand the organisation in terms of a single set of ideas, values and laws, must be doomed to failure. This alternative view finds forceful expression in the works of Renate Mayntz (1964). In his book "The Study of Organisations", he expresses his views thus:

"Propositions which hold for such diverse phenomena as an army, a trade union, and a university must necessarily be either trivial, or so abstract as to tell hardly anything of interest about concrete reality After all, the distinct character of an organisation is certainly determined, among other things, by the nature, interests and values of those who are instrumental in maintaining it". (Mayntz 1964) (p113-114)

The phenomenological view begins with the individual in the organisation and with the individual's interpretation of the world around him. The organisation will then be understood by abstracting people's beliefs and behaviour within the organisation and "theory thus becomes a set of meanings which yield insight and understanding of people's behaviour" (Barr-Greenfield 1970).(p 83)

The view favoured in this thesis is essentially the phenomenological, that is, the college as an organisation is to be understood in terms of the meaningful actions of individuals within and outside it. However, there is a rider to this statement that is intended to qualify that position, in that colleges are peopled in the main by professionals who bring a sort of collective set of actions and behaviour to bear upon the organisation. People in organisations are not endowed with the "universal" theories, nor endowed with

"individual" theories, but rather broad classes, or sets of people tend to have very similar perspectives and attach very similar meanings to organisational phenomena. Because colleges are peopled by individuals who hold certain kinds of professional values, they tend to see further education organisations as "sites" on which they enact their own autonomous professional actions. In this they may have something in common with university academics or health service workers, but they show distinctions from the perspectives of manual workers in industrial organisations for example. Indeed, one of the defining characteristics of the professional is his/her belief in a code of practice that commits them to the independent exercise of trained judgement and to the pursuit of tasks which are not routinisable.

Over the years it has been fashionable to view the college as a unit of production in the industrial sense. The production model sees the college as a set of roles and resources arranged to yield a product which conforms to pre-determined goals. This in itself constitutes a difficulty and a dissimilarity between the educational and industrial organisation - the diffuseness of goals and the difficulty of measuring outcomes in the educational setting. Miles (1967) has suggested that colleges, more than industrial organisations, suffer from ambiguity and diversity of goals. Such goal diffuseness has often resulted in conflict in measuring goal attainment. Miles (1967) further points to the difficulties of evaluating the college activities. The opposite view maintains that certain goals are identifiable

and can be measured, for example, trying to get as many students as possible in to university, or in to jobs, although such measurement is only a crude evaluation. The articulation of college goals is "usually much more difficult an operation than is normally assumed" (Bennett and Wilkie 1973) (p 390). A college when asked to specify its goals/objectives might produce a list that includes goals that are discrete and measurable, goals that are very diffuse and goals that have no purpose beyond themselves other than their pursuit gives pleasure to the receiver and they are satisfying and intrinsically valuable in themselves. Yet a statement of college goals/objectives is regarded by NAB (1987) as a necessary pre-condition of good management practice. NAB recognises the complexity of drawing together a statement of college goals/objectives yet maintains and recommends that "colleges should develop, clarify, publish and maintain statements of their purposes and objectives".(NAB 1987) (p41)

Firms are able to articulate their goals with greater precision and these goals are easier to measure. The firm exists to produce and to make a profit, the products can be quantified and the profit can be measured on a balance sheet. Yet some would maintain that this is indeed an oversimplification, and that the firm like the educational organisation can have a variety of goals. Making a profit, producing elegant motor cars, are goals that have been adopted by large firms and it is assumed that the workers identify with and try to realise these goals, but

subjectively these workers may be motivated to achieve subsidiary goals - that of relationships within the workplace or just the intrinsic value of work itself.

Another alleged difference between educational and other kinds of organisations is that the educational organisation is unable to measure immediately the results of its efforts. Education, it is maintained, is marked by intangible and remote results (Walton 1975). The time scale is very long and the success of some of its goals take years to come to fruition and even then are difficult to measure, for example the goal of producing good citizens, the process of socialisation of the individual. The industrial manager, on the other hand, can usually measure his product and his profit and take the appropriate steps immediately to remedy deficiencies that lead to poor quality or lost production. This is not to say that there are no measures of evaluation that colleges can not use, crude though they may be. The college could measure its success by the number of external examination successes, the numbers of enrolments, the student retention rate, the attendance record. Indeed, the Audit Commission is encouraging colleges to use quantitative measures, as we saw earlier, to evaluate efficiency.

If one accepts that precise evaluation is difficult in the educational organisation, whilst important, it is more a source of frustration, rather than an ideological barrier.

The industrial organisation, unlike the college, controls its

relationship with the public, "it is a relatively closed system; the college cannot control its relationship with the external world in the same way" (Stewart 1972). This brings us to another important differentiating feature that will have a relevance to the argument - the college does not control its environment, it is what Elboim-Dror (1972) has referred to as a "protected" organisation. He develops the ideas of education as being a

" captive of its environment, being dependent on it and therefore more sensitive than other organisations to external pressures and demands" (Elboim-Dror 1972) (p 38)

because of the value that the public places on education, the large amounts of public money spent on education, the near universal participation of every member of society in the educational system at some time and the semi-professional status of teachers. Sieber (1968) picks up this question of the influence of the external environment on the educational organisation and develops it in terms of the vulnerability of the profession, defined as

"the probability of being subjected to pressures incompatible with one's goals, without the capacity to resist". (Sieber 1968) (p 125)

This characteristic of educational organisations encourages subjugation to the environment, discrepancies between college goals and environmental demands, and inadequate provision of financial resources.

Etzioni, (1964) in outlining some common characteristics of organisations includes the presence of

"one or more power centres which control the concerted efforts of the organisation and direct them towards the goals; these power centres also review continuously the organisation's performance and re-pattern its structure where necessary, to increase its efficiency". (Etzioni 1964) (p 3)

The firm, it is agreed, like the college exists in an environment that is controlled externally by laws and state regulations, but the college, unlike the industrial organisation, is subject to outside power centres that directly impinge upon the functions of management within the college. The Local Education Authority (LEA), the Department of Education and Science (DES), the Welsh Office, can repattern the structure in significant ways.

Etzioni includes a second characteristic that highlights yet another important differentiating characteristic. It is termed -

"substitution of personnel, ie unsatisfactory personnel can be removed and others assigned their tasks. The organisation can also recombine its personnel through transfer and promotion". (Etzioni 1964) (p 3)

Substitution as it is defined here is not controlled by the college principal, but rather by the LEA through the college governors. The appointment and dismissal of staff is not controlled by the principal, but by the LEA. The industrial organisation, on the other hand, working within the framework of industrial law is able to hire and fire at will.

The Education Reform Act will put the power of dismissal into the hands of college principals. Promotion of staff is subject to ratification by the LEA, and surplus staff are re-deployed, again at the discretion of the LEA.

There are further differences concerning the people in the educational and industrial organisation that are relevant. There appear to be three different kinds of participants in the college. There are (i) teaching staff, including the senior management team (ii) the auxiliary/service staff that includes cleaners, canteen assistants, administrative staff and technicians and (iii) the students. Teaching and service staff have their counterparts in the industrial/commercial setting. It is the dual status of students as clients and organisational members that marks the college organisation off as different. It is not simply a difference between higher and lower organisational participants, as in the industrial organisation; it is a difference of kind. Students do not have a choice in determining the services they receive from the college, and unlike the passive raw materials in productive organisation, students have values and interests that complicate the educational process. Students may uniquely be described as being both 'consumer' and 'product', and it is this dual status that distinguishes the college. In so far as the college is people-processing then the transformation of the raw materials - the students - through the educational/training process, produces an end-product. The student is also a consumer in so far as he or she opts for a particular college course and purchases the product or

service on offer, in this particular case a particular form of education or training. If the product on offer is not to their satisfaction, then they can exercise their choice and go to another college. A further difference is that students are not represented by powerful trade unions as are workers in the industrial organisation.

Yet another differentiating feature is the role of the lecturer and his relationship with the management structure in the college setting. Davies (1973) has likened the role and position of the further education lecturer to his industrial counterpart. He notes that they are salaried employees employed on a rather loosely defined contract with little control over their own affairs; are subject to public accountability which limits their professional role; are subject to low-constraint decisions, and outside the lecture room subject to administrative constraints imposed by the management. Davies further asserts that status differences arising from the salary structure leads to

"..... the types of conflict normally associated with the business organisation". (Davies 1973) (p 133)

The limitations placed on the lecturer's professional role has led the profession to move towards more trade union forms of behaviour, strikes, working to rule; indeed it is maintained that for lower professionals like the teaching profession, the modern trade union form is more suitable to their statuses and "allows them to negotiate their professional and economic interests in the collective

bargaining situation" (Davies 1973 p 434). For practical reasons then, lecturers have had to resort to a form of unionism that is to be found in the industrial situation. To secure their best interests in an economic situation of competing interest the teaching profession has resorted to collective bargaining, like their industrial counterparts.

A single feature which distinguishes the further education lecturer from his industrial counterpart is the degree of autonomy that he enjoys in the execution of his job. "Classroom teaching is almost always conducted in isolation from colleagues - an isolation much appreciated by many teachers who value the freedom they find within the four walls of the classroom" (Watson 1973 p 408). The professional nature of education constrains the management system from inside the organisation. This much valued autonomy means that the lecturer's performance cannot always be measured and evaluated by management, posing as it does, difficult problems of supervision. The lecturer is concerned with the achievement of short and long term goals, some are immediate, easily measured and quantifiable, others are difficult to define with long lead times and their intangibility means that they are difficult, if not impossible, to measure and cannot, indeed, always be measured. Elbiom-Dror (1972) lists some further indicators that make it difficult for the management system to assess lecturer's performances. They are:

1. the lack of a developed technology in education apart

from the lecturer's professional knowledge and their rapport with their students

2. the structural looseness of the college where lecturers work alone unobserved by colleagues and supervisors
3. close supervision is difficult
- 4 the socialising activities of lecturers cannot be objective, measured, tested or evaluated. (Elboim-Dror 1971) (p 38)

These characteristics, she maintains, unique to education, are responsible for the autonomy and wide discretion that lecturers enjoy in certain areas of their work.

A further issue which distinguishes colleges from other organisations of similar size and complexity, and which complicates the management task, is the need to establish and maintain a characteristic community in which staff and students have an opportunity to influence the style, character and management of the college. The opportunity for a participative element arises from the system of Advisory Bodies, Governing Bodies and Academic Boards that exist in colleges, The Instrument and Articles of Government which set out the mode of control of the college and prescribe the involvement of staff, students, employers, trade unionists and employers representatives, undoubtedly lead to a more participative element in the management of colleges and are

intended to provide a constraint against unduly autocratic and self-contained management processes. In the above mentioned committees, staff are provided with an opportunity to participate in decisions that affect the control and management of the college. The management task is therefore set against a back-drop where they have to "mount, preserve and adapt an acceptable and effective pedagogic process and to manage a complex and changing plant of considerable value within the context of public accountability and democratic control" (ACSET 1984), and further they have to manage the internal conflicts that arise from the twin concepts of the lecturer as 'professional' - a role characterised by autonomous, adaptive and knowledge based teaching - and 'employee', a role characterised by rule-following, routinised and skill-based teaching, and a subjection to a punishment centred administration (Corwin 1965).

Much of the discussion to this point has highlighted those differences of organisation that mark off the college as a different organisational environment, yet a number of writers on organisation maintain that essentially the management of one organisation is no different from any other. Commentators on management recognise that there is no such thing as hospital management or business management or public management or college management, there is only 'management'. Litchfield (1956) put the point very succinctly thus -

"The emerging concepts of human relations, communications or operations research are as applicable to a hospital as they are to a bank. The constant movement of executive personnel from business to government, from the military

forces into large business, from both government and business into education, is emphatic testimony supporting our conviction that knowledge, and skills are transferable from field to field because of the essential universality in the administrative process itself". (Litchfield 1956) (P 28)

This question of the transferability of skills must surely be what the IPM had in mind in their definition of personnel management, when it was asserted that personnel management has a relevance to all organisations

"..... it applies not only to industry and commerce but to all fields of employment". (IPM 1979)

Thomas (1970) drew attention to the commonality of problems; he felt that with the pressures of economies of scale, the mergers to produce large complex organisations, that it would be a profitable exercise for the educational theorist to look at the ways in which industry had tackled the attendant problems, and further that possibly education could learn from their mistakes because "the same problems are going to be encountered". (p 2)

The question that can be put, therefore is, "Can managerial knowledge used by profit organisations be effectively applied to non-profit organisations?" The belief that it can, with certain provisos, is fairly wide-spread, once one recognises that distinct operational differences exist.

Checkland (1974) argues that some of the current thinking in the management field is relevant to education in general and to the role of the educational manager in particular, but he

warns that

"..... there can be no glib transfer into the public sector of management ideas and techniques developed for the relatively simple solution of industrial firms". (Checkland 1974)

for as Jones (1974) rightly points out the educational organisation is "concerned with values, rather than commodities".

Dr Michael Birchenough in addressing the Annual Conference of the Headmasters' Association in 1968 stressed that

"..... we have much to learn from management education provided that we are not lead astray by false analogies with industrial and commercial situations".

Glatter (1972) argues for the application of management techniques derived from industry to be applied to educational administration; he argues that

"..... it is scarcely possible to conceive of administrative training without substantial borrowing from studies of management in other contexts - particularly the industrial, since this is where most of the reserch work has been done. This work must be reinterpreted for its relevance to education and, where appropriate, studies to test such relevance should be mounted". (Glatter 1972) (p 9)

Thomason (1974), in an article on organisation and management stresses that the college principal needs an introduction to the basic concepts of the industrial manager. In the past it has been sufficient for the problems of managing the educational institution to be handed over to the professional

teacher using "the knowledge, understanding and insight which his training and successive teaching experiences gave him". Thomason maintains that the future requires that there will be a need for

"..... the head to take a stance as a professional administrator rather than, or at least in addition to, one as a first amongst equals".(Thomason 1974) (p 36)

The aim as Thomason sees it is to link the principles and precepts of the industrial organisation to the peculiar situation of the school and college as service organisations.

The transfer of business management concepts to educational administration does, however, pose difficulties, and should not be underestimated. The ways in which the education organisation differs from the industrial organisation were referred to earlier - the distinct objectives, the special relationship between the primary clientele (the students), the secondary clientele (employers and parents) and the employees, the relative lack of competition, the relative autonomy of the professional staff and the organisational output which has largely eluded quantitative evaluation - and the proviso must be accepted that the "general theory has to be adapted to the special characteristics of educational administration" (Hughes 1974). (p 21)

The principles of management are no less important then to education than they are to industry. The management functions of goal-setting, planning and coping with change,

are just as relevant to a college organisation as a profit orientated business organisation. The need to motivate, to develop, to promote, to reward, are as real to the college employee as they are to business and industry. Indeed, the fundamental building blocks of all organisations are people, and it is therefore, reasonable to suppose that "motivation techniques that work essentially in one organisation should have significance in another" (Lahti 1973). Universally, managers are concerned with the types of activities that will be conducive to the organisation's success and they are concerned about the ways in which employees perform their activities in the organisation. It is contended that "proven management techniques and systems cannot be ignored by educational managers but there should not be wholesale, indiscriminate transplantation of techniques and procedures from one setting to another". (Lahti 1973 p 11). A critical appraisal is required and an awareness of organisational differences and in this light new techniques can be applied to old problems. The ultimate aim for any organisation is the realisation of its objectives (these objectives need to be realistic and informed in terms of what has been described as the primary purpose of the organisation ie to survive) and it is suggested that

"..... a management approach is attractive because it offers hope of means being found to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of educational systems, institutions and methods" (Baron 1975). (p 23)

If the benefits of adopting personnel management techniques

are accepted, in terms of increased staff effectiveness, organisational commitment and greater involvement then what needs to be considered is what form will this take and what model will serve as "best fit" for the college of further education.

Chapter 6

A HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT MODEL

FOR FURTHER EDUCATION

Senior Managers in colleges now face a range of changes that seem to be greater and more intense than hitherto, and they lack any precedent to guide them to adjust and cope. The more significant changes have already been referred to in some detail; they include changes in the funding and controlling agencies, in the client groups, in staff conditions of service, the curriculum - all have to be managed at a time when funding levels are being steadily eroded and control and resource allocation is being steadily centralised by government. Within the colleges contraction, or an absence of expansion is the norm, there are few promotion prospects, conditions of service are under attack, there is low staff turn over and morale is low. Despite this large dose of pessimism examples do exist of colleges responding with local initiatives that are constructive, creative and optimistic, in part attributable to their resilience and sense of professionalism. These changes and the pressures they cause call for a review of the processes of management within the colleges, and the identification of those modes of activity that are most likely to help management to achieve the twin objectives of managing their colleges effectively and efficiently.

This study has raised the issue of one aspect of the further education's management support system - the place of the

personnel function: The review of the literature in Chapter 5 highlighted the lack of provision in this area, the recent survey by East (1987) confirming this view. East concluded that of the colleges in his survey he could find no evidence of a full, professional personnel function existing. Where personnel activities existed in colleges they were generally carried out in a satisfactory way, but by staff who were employed for other purposes and who therefore spent only a part of their time on such activities. East saw no reason why the college of further education could not benefit from an effective personnel function because the college was not significantly different from other enterprises which benefited from a well developed personnel function - a conclusion reached in Chapter 5. The survey further supports the idea expressed earlier, that the job satisfaction of staff could be enhanced, leading to greater organisational commitment, if personnel services were linked to an effective personnel policy.

It is facile to say that people are the most important organisational resource and that because personnel looks after people it too must be important. The personnel function must be able to justify its inclusion as part of the management structure. This becomes even more important within the further education sector where no formal recognition exists and where it is suggested that it now be included.

Any model offered therefore must be capable of being justified. This involves possibly three dimensions.

Advancing a concept for adoption rests on our ability to describe it, measure it and implement it - the dimension of putting the concept into practical operation, requiring not only an understanding of the concept and its measurement, but also of the areas in which it has relevance to managing personnel, that is taking appropriate managerial action.

For an organisation to survive requires capacity for adaptation, flexibility and a willingness to embrace new ideas; it can entail also an evaluation and imposition of what can be termed "external disciplines", as a basis for analysis and action. This has taken place within the further education sector already with large numbers of colleges embracing the techniques of marketing, the Responsive College Project being testament to this. Changing markets, the impact of computer technology, increasing competition, will undoubtedly provoke a radical review of objectives and activities in most organisations.

Declining numbers, the erosion of traditional markets, rationalisation and mergers, will mean that growth can no longer be taken for granted and that in the battle for survival, colleges will see that their future success must depend increasingly on their ability to mobilise to the full the potential of the people they employ.

Planning for the development of people as well as the development of processes and products must now be at the core of the strategic management of the further education college.

Hitherto, it has been contended that the management of the colleges has placed the management of the curriculum (as the product) as central to their strategy, and have tended to ignore the other part of the resource triumvirate - the people they employ. People can no longer be left out of product planning; the machine maintenance breakdown mentality referred to earlier must be abandoned and replaced. The increasing pace of change has added new urgency to the proper development/management of the people employed within the organisation, a contention supported by Drucker (1979) when he declares that "the purpose of the organisation is to make the strengths of people productive and their weaknesses irrelevant".

To succeed in a changing environment a college needs clear objectives, which are regularly reviewed and up-dated; it needs good information about its markets and the ability to respond rapidly to changes in the market; it should be looking constantly at the concept of quality and how it affects the product and the public's perception of the product; it needs to respond to quality in its staff; success in the future is held in the ability of the college to be innovative and to embrace and respond to change; it must meet the twin requirements of efficiency and effectiveness, if it is to maintain its competitive edge. The necessity to stay on top puts special demands on those that comprise the college, requiring of them competence, commitment and adaptability.

Enhancing the emphasis on people comes as a substantial change to most organisations requiring new attitudes, priorities and methods. Certainly when the contemporary industrial scene is surveyed evidence exists of a swing to individualism. Tyson and Fell (1986) have perceived a change in governmental attitude in the United Kingdom that is reflected in a political philosophy that embodies "a laissez-faire ideology, the credo of which is competition, individualism and the survival of the fittest". The Annual Report for 1988 of the Advisory Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) perceived a shifting emphasis to the individual in employment, noting changes in management systems that gave greater weight to "employee directed policies, the main objective of which was to establish a closer relationship between employer and employee". They noted an increased interest in effective communication, major improvement and a decline in the role of industry wide and multi-company bargaining in favour of "a framework emphasising greater opportunities for managers and employees to reach local agreements suited to their particular circumstances".

NATFHE in assessing the likely impact of the Education Reform Act has sounded a cautionary note when they expressed their concern over the switch of power from LEAs to give college governors control over key areas. The Education Reform Act devolves greater control to the college. NATFHE fears for the future of national bargaining and for the shift of control away from the LEA's to the colleges, yet one

criterion by which devolved schemes will be judged by the Secretary of State will be one that gives colleges' governors as much freedom as possible to manage their affairs and allocate their resources as they think best within the strategic framework set by the LEA. This shift of responsibility to the college governors and the possibility of decisions being 'sub-contracted' to the Principal will place the conduct of 'employee relations' much higher up the scale of priorities than ever before.

Cannon (1979) in addressing the major policy issues that the personnel specialist is likely to face in the future, identifies a major shift to the management of employee relations. Support for Cannon's view can be found from Tyson and Fell (1986) where in considering the control of the employment relationship, they contend that future major concerns for personnel managers will be individual performance standards; selection tests for appropriate qualities and skills in the employee; training in job-related skills and in customer relationships; management development; better communications; more management team building , and value for money in personnel policies.

"This heralds a shift towards 'employee' relations. A move, in fact, to an individualistic rather than a collective ideology." (Tyson and Fell 1986) (p 12)

Following from the above is the contention therefore that every college should have a plan for its people, and this plan should be integrated into all the other plans for the

college - for the curriculum, finance, buildings etc. If this proposition is accepted then it follows that someone must have responsibility for the plan, but who in the college is going to fulfil this role? Within the college the main responsibility for the planning and control of activities lies with the Principal. He/she is seen to be the prime mover, and radical change can only be achieved with his/her support. A Principal who wishes to develop the people aspect of corporate planning will need to provide a lead to the rest of the college. Corporate planning is important to the future success of the college, and the Principal has the key role in setting the priorities and deciding between short or long term goals.

If an enhanced emphasis on the management of the human resource is to take place, then the form of that initiative has to be delineated. It is suggested here that the most appropriate model for the college of further education would be one based on the characteristics of human resource management, already outlined on pages 29-39.

The essence of Human Resource Management would seem to accord well with the needs of further education at this time with the requirements of a changing environment that requires attention to competitive advantage, employee involvement, pressures for cost effectiveness and long term planning, organisational structures that are under pressure to change, to become more flexible and responsive and a heightened interest in employee relations.

POSSIBLE CONSTRAINTS AND IMPLICATIONS OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN FURTHER EDUCATION COLLEGES

The most obvious constraint on any activity is the pressure it puts on the existing framework and the limits on time and resources available. A commitment to implement Human Resources Management, where it does not exist, will demand that it has some sort of high priority over other existing activities. This can be represented by a switch to provide additional resources to aid its implementation, in other words more spending, or by planning the new activities in such a way as to give them automatic priority over other activities. However, the acceptance of change has more to do with attitudinal change in people than it has to do with budgeting provision. Extra financial resources usually assists the change process but by far the greatest facilitator is the commitment of the corporate leadership, the senior management team; their support would be vital for Human Resource Management to succeed. Effective acceptance of change and innovation will only come from management's personal commitment.

Guest (1987) considers that for Human Resource Management to have a chance of success the senior management must have a strategic view of HRM as a key component in the corporate strategy. As personnel management is not formalised within the college setting at this time, implementation of an HRM approach will involve an attempt to change attitudes, a process that it is freely acknowledged is very difficult to

achieve. Thurley and Wood (1983) indicate that one credible approach to achieve a change in strategic thinking is to justify the HRM approach by reference to a clear and acceptable business strategy for the organisation.

There exists another major stumbling block to the achievement of recognition and success in personnel, and that is the reluctance of senior managers to articulate their expectations of personnel managers. The greatest barrier to the installation of HRM will be the failure of management to realise that HRM requires a total approach to its acceptance. A piece-meal approach will deny the realisation of an essential element of HRM, and that is strategic integration. Guest quotes as an example of this failure a British firm that failed to implement 'quality circles', whereas its American counterpart was successful. The explanation was that a quality programme was installed without the realisation that its success depended upon an improvement in the quality of staff operating the scheme and a failure to engage the appropriate levels of employee commitment. Currently, an LEA in Wales has established an improved staff development programme with an LEA policy declaration, and a policy and framework for staff development in each of its colleges. Alongside this development this same LEA is about to institute a staff performance and review system; but neither is linked to a policy that states what its attitude is towards its employees - it lacks a personnel policy. Such a fragmented approach, if not doomed to failure, is certainly going to encounter severe birth pangs and eventual dilution,

if it is not planned as a total approach to the management of the human resources in the colleges.

Successful change comes from management's personal commitment to the need for change and their involvement at every stage of the developmental process. An additional hurdle that will need surmounting will be the need to convince college management of the value and benefits of an HRM approach. It is widely recognised that the quality of management in further education is a crucial determinant of the system's overall educational effectiveness, yet it displays a lack of clearly defined responsibilities for some of the key activities of management. The 1985 ACSET report in an assessment of the state of management development within colleges concluded that it was so important to the future development of colleges that an individual who was part of the senior management team, principal, vice-principal, should take explicit responsibility for it. If a similar case is to be made for HRM within further education, then surely the same condition must apply, even more so because personnel management responsibility extends to all staff in the college, academic, support and ancillary. However, if we refer back to the changes referred to earlier and the ways in which they impinge upon the role of the principal, we must accept that it is becoming increasingly complex: he/she is expected to manage staff, the curriculum, the finances, the physical plant. No principal can possibly perform all the tasks required without a measure of support from others that form the management team.

Rebore (1982), advancing a slightly different approach, considers that a move towards a measure of specialism of role will take place that will see the personnel specialism evolving as the need for effective human resources management gains momentum (a view confirmed earlier in the work of Harkness (1963), Morgan (1982)). Armstrong (1987) agreeing with this view suggests that for HRM to succeed it will require:

"..... a member of the executive board responsible for human resources". (Armstrong 1987) (p35)

This has indeed already taken place in one further education college in Wales with the appointment of a Director of Personnel with specific responsibility for staffing areas and who as a member of the management team is seen as a personnel specialist providing an administrative service to line management. (Appendix 7 contains a copy of the job description and the functional role of this post.)

Another constraint that will need consideration is the nature of technology/production employed in the organisation. Guest was writing primarily from an industrial perspective relating his theory and examples to industry. HRM for him, therefore, is more difficult to introduce when large numbers of employees are engaged on short-cycle repetitive production line tasks. In this type of organisation, for example, job re-design is seldom possible. What he is saying here is that there seems to be a range of contextual factors within

organisations - which include the strength and type of union organisation, the type of technology and the effect of product and labour markets on the organisation - which constitute constraints to their operation and which influence heavily their employee relations strategy. Within the organisation, therefore, the technology/production structure places certain limits on the scope of HRM to operate. However, when considering the nature of the college organisation which is a professional model there would seem to be no reason why the full expression of the HRM approach cannot be fulfilled. The professional model of the college would allow the full expression of the HRM model in the college context, allowing the four major functional roles of personnel

- * representing the colleges central value system
- * maintaining the boundaries of the organisation
- * providing stability and continuity
- * adapting the college to change

to be exercised fully as a joint responsibility of the corporate management group.

The concept 'profession' has been debated by sociologists over many years and the categorisation of teaching as a profession has similarly occupied many theorists. The debate while interesting is not really important within this context, other than to stress that two dimensions of profession are of interest here, those of "teacher autonomy"

and "professional control".

The teacher has been thought of as an autonomous professional enjoying a large measure of independence especially in the classroom, but that autonomy is not complete and unfettered because teaching as an activity is subject to controls. Her Majesty's Inspectorate exercise a measure of control, but more relevantly here, individual teachers require a degree of co-ordination and thus organisation imposes constraints on autonomy and leads, as we saw earlier to management figures within the system organising, directing and controlling those activities. Other factors are at work that are shaping this professionalism. These too have been referred to earlier on page 118 where changes to the pedagogy and the curriculum have eroded autonomy to newer forms of interdependence, and changes in the socio-political environment have led to the evolution of more participative forms of government with teachers being presented with opportunities to participate in collective decision-making with regards to college goals and organisation (Hoyle 1975). Hoyle has argued that far greater professional control would appear

"..... to require a more extended form of professionalism, a professionalism which is not limited to classroom skills alone but embraces a wider range of knowledge and skills".
(Hoyle 1975) (p 37)

For Hoyle this extended professionalism would lead to greater levels of job satisfaction for teachers.

The employment of the professional in a business environment

has not been without its difficulties. Drucker (1952) in addressing this problem attributes its cause in part to one of basic attitudes. Drucker's suggested solution is not to change the professional employee's attitudes

"..... the real task is to find how to use the professional employee effectively as a professional". (Drucker 1952) (p85)

Education in some ways is adopting some of the norms of business, it is embracing the concept of marketing and becoming more cost conscious. The problems then of managing a profession that is being changed have to be considered.

Fombrun (1984) takes the view that

"..... we are seeing the birth of the strategic human resource management function whose inputs and activities are on a par with those of marketing and finance in terms of a recognition of their impact on the bottom line"
(Fombrun 1984) (p38-39)

The result must be, if change is being effected from outside the profession, one of resistance. Indeed Drucker maintains that the professional regards the imposition of personnel practices

"..... as the very antithesis of professional status, and there is nothing that he resents more deeply"

"..... conversely, nothing appeals so much to his idea of the status due to him as does direct responsibility to work out for himself the personnel practices and procedures that concern his group". (Drucker 1952) (p 88)

Supervision is resented by professionals and they tend to

work as 'senior' and 'junior' rather than 'boss' and 'subordinate'. If as is being maintained by HRM that the management of people, in this instance professionals, is handed back to line management, (within the context of the college of further education this would be the Head of Department), then this would appear to be more palatable, because it will entail being 'managed' by a fellow professional.

Adoption of an HRM approach will see the responsibility for 'personnel' being transferred or perhaps restored to line management. Thomason (1989) justifies this strategy by highlighting the need of modern organisations to integrate the contributions made by all resources in the organisation into "a single conception of enterprise purpose". This finds expression in a team approach to the operation of the organisation and leads, as we saw earlier (page 36), to a unitary approach that is difficult to reconcile with a staff-line organisation. If this integrating philosophy is extended to all levels in the organisation, then at the top, the corporate level, an HRM approach would see the production of "a mission statement and a business plan which will serve to focus the activities and contributions of everyone in the organisation" (Thomason 1989). Support for this emerging theme can be adduced from studies that have highlighted the role ambiguity of the role of personnel management and the problems of conflict with management inherent in that role, (Legge 1978, Tyson 1983, Watson 1977), and the growing importance of line managers, with the idea being canvassed of

giving the task of handling personnel matters to these managers. (Cowan 1986, Purcell 1985).

A further emerging theme that will have reverberations for further education and one that is perceptible in modern organisations, is that of decentralisation of management structures, with operating units being given increased responsibility. (Edwards 1986). The implication for management with the devolution of responsibility more to plant/college level from head office/County Hall, is that the growing pressures to be more competitive and efficient will mean the search for new more effective ways of managing, for "better ways of doing things" (Edwards 1987). A possible strategy that might be adopted in response to the above might be greater involvement of all workers, the generation of consent and the "active pursuit of the firm's (college's) goals and the willing deployment of worker's abilities" (Burnway 1985, and Henry 1982). Employee commitment is a concept to which we will return, but one dimension of engaging that concept is to involve employees in the needs of the business by persuading them to accept these needs and the new working practices that are inherent in change. The line manager is ideally placed to secure such commitment, as Thomason (1989) states,

"..... the need to devolve responsibility to those who will be expected to acquire and allocate resources and both to define and evaluate their contributions to the realisation of the central purpose". (Thomason 1989) (p 5)

To give responsibility for personnel functions to line

management within further education would not seem to be inconsistent with perceived trends in education which have commented on "the receding locus of power" (Noble and Pym 1970), which sees the real decisions being taken somewhere else.

It would appear, therefore, that the role of the line manager and his willing acceptance of and understanding of the concept of HRM is an important ingredient of successful implementation. Guest (1986) expresses this idea very succinctly when he declares that "line managers need to internalise the importance of human resources". HRM will be successfully implemented if the line managers in the further education system recognise the importance of staff, engage in practices which reflect this importance, and accept their responsibility to practise HRM. Within the further education system, already "under-developed" in its management function, it must be stated that the line manager should have access to some specialist resource that could assist in policy formation, policy development, problem-solving and training. The wise manager will also recognise that HRM is difficult to practise, especially when it entails line management commitment.

Changes in the market situation of many further education colleges must cause them to look at their corporate strategy. In responding to a threatening external environment the college will be required to make changes which will affect employees at all levels - this is bound to have

reverberations through the industrial relations systems of the college. An HRM approach must inevitably consider these industrial/employee relations implications. Established industrial relations practices and staff and management attitudes can provide a major barrier to the implementation of the HRM model.

At the centre of the HRM concept is the aim of the complete identification of the employees with the aims and values of the enterprise. If however, employee involvement is to be achieved solely on the employee's terms, then this smacks of employer manipulation - see page 37. An HRM approach emphasises a unitarist approach. The question then is raised as to who is responsible for the employee relations within the organisation? Marsh's (1982) answer would be that "it is the senior line manager rather than the personnel specialist who is regarded as having general responsibility for employee relations". It would be idle to generalise at this point because while it is recognised that line management has the responsibility for the face-to-face negotiations, the personnel specialist might be involved in creating the industrial/employee relations climate within the organisation. Certainly in surveying the changes and pressures that colleges are experiencing in the area of industrial relations HRM might provide an emerging strategy for college management to use to cope with the changes. Nationally we are seeing a decline in industry-wide bargaining and a shift of emphasis to local agreements. The devolved powers of the Education Reform Act will see college

management exercising far greater control over their industrial relations, coupled with pressures to be cost-effective, and faced with a total budget that comprises between 70-75% staffing costs, then industrial relations are going to assume a far greater emphasis in the college environment than hitherto.

Historically in British industry, industrial relations have been included in the line manager's role. Guest (1986) considers that a human resources management approach would preserve that tradition; indeed almost all writers on Human Resources Management confirm that it must be managed by line managers.

In assessing how the college adapts to change it is necessary to consider the organisational structure and its influence on the dynamics of the college. As was stated earlier, page 83, most further education colleges are organised on departmental hierarchical lines. However, recent years have seen the emergence of an alternative in the form of the matrix, see page 85. A constantly changing environment and changing demands made upon the further education system will emphasize a need for the re-examination of structures, jobs and positions as part of the continual process of adaptation. Thomason (1989) in assessing the suitability of organisational structures and this relationship to the devolution of authority and responsibility, stresses the importance of organisational structure and maintains that the most effective organisational structure will be one that is

relatively "flat", that is

"..... organisations require a no-more extensive vertical division of managerial labour than that contained in these three levels, corporate, managerial, supervisory".(Thomason 1989) (p 5)

If this proviso is to be accepted then colleges qualify already in terms of organisational structures, in that in predominantly hierarchical departmental structure three levels exist and are the norm, they are corporate management (Principal, Vice-Principal), managerial (Heads of Department), supervisory (Team/Section leaders).

Whatever structure is adopted the question will be raised as to how Human Resources Management will fit in to that particular organisational structure as has been mentioned earlier. Someone will have to have overall responsibility and consideration will need to be given as to how that 'fit' is to be achieved. Positions in any organisations give stability to the structure and they tend to take upon themselves a high degree of permanency. They are by definition, therefore, more difficult to change, but change they must.

The scenario being envisaged in this study will see a Human Resources Management model adopted, with the college line management playing a full and active role, a personnel assistant dealing with administrative personnel tasks, not having any direct authority over professional staff, and a member of the senior management team, possibly a Vice-

Principal, having an overall responsibility at the corporate level to ensure that strategic Human Resource Management is implemented throughout the organisation. As Miller (1987) declares

"..... those decisions and actions which concern the management of employees at all levels in the business and which are related to the implementation of strategies directed towards creating and sustaining competitive advantage". (Miller 1987) (p 352)

At the very core of human resources management is the belief in the potential and productive contribution of the individual. The very essence of Human Resources Management sees the people as the source of creative energy whilst recognising the inter-dependence of the technology of the organisation, the capital, the organisational structure, job design and individual goals and motivation.

BENEFITS AND RELEVANCE OF THE MODEL TO FURTHER EDUCATION

It is contended that a Human Resources Management approach can have a relevance for the improved management of further education particularly at this juncture in its history. However, in considering the benefits that can be said to accrue to the system, it is not intended that a detailed justification by reference to complicated financial and behavioural modelling be provided, such as has been expounded by Cannon (1979), Tyson and Fell (1986), Bennett (1981).

DIFFICULTIES OF ASSESSMENT

Any consideration of the benefits to be gained must inevitably involve value judgements based upon an evaluation of possible outcomes. The processes of evaluation are themselves dependent upon the perspective adopted by the individual or organisation making the judgement. That viewpoint will also be shaped by the position of the individual or organisation in the total system. Reference has already been made to the senior partners in the further education system, nationally and locally and their evaluations of key aspects referred to. The differing perspectives of central government, the Training Agency, HMIS, the Audit Commission, External Examining Bodies, LEAs and employees, all seek to influence and change the system in some way. In recent years colleges have been subjected to an unprecedented level of complex changes brought about in large measure by the agencies listed above. The consequence of this is that some aspects of people's current jobs will remain constant, but there is every likelihood that managerial jobs in further education will change substantially.

Whatever one's perspective is, however, evaluation of educational management is problematical. Whilst it has been concluded that the college of further education shares many of the same characteristics of industry when it comes to the transference of common managerial skills from industry to education, education has certain characteristics that mark it

off as different and there are problematic areas when it comes to evaluation. Reference has been made earlier (see pages 144-146) to the problems of measuring outcomes in education, but whilst recognising that it is difficult, it is more a source of frustration than an ideological barrier. Indeed an exhortation from the JES study (1987) encourages colleges to keep "the monitoring of performance to manageable proportions and avoiding becoming bogged down in excessive analysis".(pl3)

If a quest is to be made for a justification of a personnel management approach in terms of quantifiable indicators of benefits then serious difficulties will be encountered. It is difficult to find a single overall measure of the performance of a college that is analagous to the profit measure in a profit-oriented company. The goals of the college are complex, often of an intangible nature and have a long time-span of realisation. The outputs too are complex and some in their desire for measurable outcomes, the Audit Commission for example, have sought to derive a cluster of single measures as a multi-dimensional indicator.

Even worse problems are encountered in evaluating the contribution that personnel management itself makes within the industry setting. The contribution that personnel management can make to the organisation is determined and measured by the extent to which its policies assist the realisation of the organisation's objectives. As a consequence of trying to define this contribution certain

factors exist that make assessment difficult. Very often firms themselves do not clearly define their objectives, the pace of change very often renders declared objectives obsolete, personnel objectives themselves are very often vague and difficult to assess, indeed the concept of what is 'successful' is itself dependent upon perspective and the individual or groups concept of 'success'. Attempts have been made to link the performance of personnel management to the firm in terms of its contribution to overall profit, and again models exist that attempt to evaluate personnel management's contribution by a cost-benefit approach (Cannon 1979) and human asset accounting (Giles and Robinson 1972). Undoubtedly some parts of the personnel function like education, can be quantified and evaluated, but a major part of the function's contribution to the organisation is in areas that are difficult to quantify, like shaping the organisational culture, mutuality, employee commitment, organisational value systems. Support for this caveat comes from Thomason (1981) when he declares that the influence

"... personnel officers have upon shaping the way in which individual enterprises treat people at work would be difficult to assess precisely".
(Thomason 1981) (p 57)

THE BENEFITS

Despite difficulties to be encountered in evaluation of both education and personnel management, it is maintained that the Human Resources Management model can bring distinct benefits to the management of further education whilst it is

acknowledged that a general advocacy of an Human Resources Management approach is not appropriate in all settings. Those benefits can be approached along the three dimensions of - effectiveness, efficiency and behavioural improvements.

EFFECTIVENESS AND EFFICIENCY

When looking at what benefits a Human Resource Management approach would bring to further education the contention is, that it could aid the realisation of the twin objectives of further education management to reach an effective and efficient use of resources. The Secretary of State for Education considers the effective and efficient use of resources to be particularly important, so much so that in considering the schemes to be submitted for approval under the Education Reform Act, efficiency and effectiveness are listed as specific criteria to be targeted.

Birch (1988) defines effectiveness as concerned with outcomes. A college is said to be effective in so far as it "produces outcomes which are relevant to the needs and demands of its clients". Efficiency is concerned with the cost of the resources consumed in the process, "the cost of achieving the outcomes", output over cost. Further, a college becomes more efficient to the extent that it maintains those outcomes with fewer resources, or increases the outcomes with a less than proportionate increase in inputs" - achieving more with less.

Indicators of effectiveness and efficiency lie at the heart of management control and management should be concerned to improve both. However, there are no objective measures of a manager's performance. The types of output measure that are appropriate for use in the college are arranged along a continuum. At one end are unmeasurable social indicators that are closely related to the goals of the college, and at the other end are measures/outcomes that can be precisely stated. The JES (1987) study has put forward a number of measures of the latter kind in an attempt to quantify effectiveness. These indicators are: "numbers of students enrolled, numbers of students completing, qualification and examination success, progressions and student destinations - what Anthony and Herzlinger (1975) have termed "low-level indicators". Anthony and Herzlinger acknowledge that lower level indicators are easier to quantify but they are not as useful as the higher level outputs which are better indicators of programme effectiveness. The impact of personnel policies is likely to be felt in those areas that come under higher level outputs and are of their very nature difficult to quantify. The use of indicators is an attempt to capture something of the complexity of the educational process but,

"..... large parts of education ... still deny quantification and analysis" (Birch 1988).(p 5)

In what ways, therefore, can it be said that human resource management will assist the processes of effectiveness? HRM

will be effective in so far as it contributes to the strategic development of the college. Personnel's influence can be felt in those areas of major policy decisions that influence the effectiveness of the college, and they are important areas that have been highlighted as currently under pressure to change - employee relations, recruitment and selection, staff and management development, pay and conditions of service. The specific contribution that HRM ideas can make in these areas is that they bring assumptions to bear on employment policies that influence or shape the productive capacity of the organisation. The major contribution of HRM in this area is the confrontation of issues that relate to employee involvement and organisational development and to relate these to the overall corporate plan.

Reference has also been made to the pace of change in further education and its implications. This is one area in which attention to HRM approaches can constitute major benefits to further education, for it is in the management of the change process that the dynamics of HRM can bring about improvement to organisational efficiency. It is in the area of personnel policies designed to assist in the management of change and the securing of stability in the organisation that real benefits can be seen to accrue. Reference has already been made to the importance of the corporate plans of the organisation and the need for strategic management to include the human resources alongside marketing, finance and production (Alpander 1982). Because the management of people

constitutes the greatest variables and are difficult to control, it follows that a strategic human resources management model is able to bring about a more effective use of that resource, then that will lead to a competitive advantage for that organisation. A necessary precondition of success, however, states that HRM policies must be fully integrated with other areas of policy, must be internally consistent within HRM and require full acceptability by line managers and their willingness to implement those policies wholeheartedly. If these preconditions can be achieved then embracing a HRM approach will lead to

"..... a greater willingness to accept change and fewer delays and barriers caused by conflicting understandings and priorities" (Guest 1987).(p 512)

At a time when most colleges are under pressure to change and to improve management practices in such areas as staff appraisal, discipline and promotion procedures the experience and expertise of the personnel function would prove to be immensely beneficial. Graystone (1988) confirms the move towards "the new managerialism", where principals of colleges are faced increasingly with complex financial and managerial reforms, and McLeod (1988) maintains that "colleges are not ready to face independently the rapid changes which are still happening in further education".

The future will see principals, in the opinion of Lewis (1988) (p 746), becoming "managing directors", and the trends to the new managerialism, as a result of the Education Reform

Act causing academics to be trained as managers, or "outsiders coming in to take key managerial decisions." (Graystone 1988) (p 672)

Cost Benefit

It is possible in some areas of personnel's activities to demonstrate a cost-benefit approach. Certainly at this time with the current pre-occupation with cost-effective approaches to college management, any measures that can demonstrate cost savings to a college, thus reducing unit costs, would be attractive. A cautionary note, however, about cost-benefit analysis as a management tool needs to be sounded because it cannot provide magical answers to problems where value judgements are a part. Cost benefit analysis will provide more informed decisions and a better understanding of those decisions. Personnel management systems might then be justified, if the practices and policies put forward, with the objective of improving the effectiveness of people at work, are able to consider the costs and benefits of alternative courses of action. The value of personnel is to be found in its promulgation of policies and practices that are designed to improve the productivity of the workforce, to lead to more efficient practices. Some areas where quantitative targets can be determined are in recruitment and selection, training, management development, industrial relations, communications and employment (absenteeism and wastage).

Pressures for cost-effectiveness within the further education sector highlight the importance to management of the need to implement effective planning systems to achieve effective control over cost factors; to bring about cost savings and the need to plan for the effective and efficient use of resources. Broadly, the benefits of a cost-benefit approach can be categorised under three headings - that of (i) cost reduction (ii) performance improvement (iii) greater satisfaction, and many of the activities that come under these three headings will stem from personnel policies implemented by line managers (Cannon 1979).

Whether colleges like it or not the future holds cost effective implications for them. Pressures for change in this direction have come from government policy, the increasing cost of employing people, falling rolls (fewer students projected in the 16-19 age range), and the need to alter manning levels to cope with contraction. Some of the major measures of organisational performance indicators suggested by Cannon that might be relevant to the college setting are

- * added value per £ of employee cost
- * capital employed per employee
- * cost of absenteeism and the trend over time
- * cost of labour turn-over and the trend over time
- * cost of lost time through industrial action
- * extent of managerial motivation and commitment to the future

- * legislation and costs of complying with it
- * relations with central and local government
- * recruitment and the cost consequences of discharging such social obligations.

but Cannon suggests that each organisation will need to modify the above list in the light of its own circumstances.

A cost-benefit approach might well be one that colleges would do well to investigate in the light of the proposed changes to college governance and management in the Education Reform Act. If colleges are to be given control of their own budgets for the first time, then expertise in costing and financial planning will be important skills for college management.

However attractive a cost-benefit approach might be, care needs to be exercised because the most important factor in the educational equation is the quality of the education offered i.e. effectiveness. The tendency to see education as a production line with 'inputs' and 'outputs' is unduly simplistic and ignores the essential complexity of the educational process. Because it is difficult to evaluate effectiveness within education, it would be fallacious to reject the idea simply because it is difficult. The Audit Commission (1985) have provided through such comparative measures as:

- * staff-student ratios (SSR)

- * average class size (ACS)
- * average lecturer class-contact hours (ALH)
- * average weekly taught hours of full-time students (ASH)
- * unit costs

their ideas of indicators that measure the quantifiable 'outputs' of the system.

Other writers however, Jones (1986) and Reynolds (1983), whilst recognising the importance of precise measures consider that there are other equally important indicators to be taken into consideration. Jones (1986) in a Coombe Lodge Report, was critical of the indicators put forward by the Audit Commission declaring that

"The various performance criteria that are applied at national and local levels are in the main pre-occupied with superficial measures related to cost and seldom have regard for the qualitative aspect of the service". (Jones 1986) (p3)

Reynolds (1983) highlights the quality of relationships that exist, particularly the principal/staff relationship, as having more influence on the measurement of effectiveness than the quantifiable measures indicated above. Within the college setting then Gray (1972) also maintains that the people are more important than the technology and the problems will be located in terms of people and inter-personal relationships.

Cannon (1979) considers that the major policy issues that will face the personnel manager in the future will be the

management of employee relations. Cannon's approach to evaluating the personnel function is a cost-benefit approach, but his thesis brings together both elements outlined above, the approach to efficiency that measures "hard" quantifiable indicators, and the "soft" measures of the quality of human relationships. He proposed a number of steps in monitoring the organisation that involved -

- (i) identifying and gathering information on the costs of all aspects of an organisation's human resource;
- (ii) identifying and monitoring continuously a range of performance indicators; and
- (iii) encouraging the organisation to learn about the ways it develops and debilitates the productive capacity of the human organisation.

Personnel can bring a range of skills to the management of people that aim to reduce costs and lead to greater efficiency in manpower, and this approach would be very attractive at a time of cost pressure, but it is important to remember that whilst the management of the budget is important, Peters and Austin (1985) remind us that

"..... a great school is never characterised by the remark 'It has a good budget'. The superb school is superb only by virtue of its success in developing its ultimate customer, the student".(Peters and Austin 1985)

Investment in HRM approaches should bring improvement to a college's performance that has as its ultimate goal the effective management of staff to enable the highest quality of learning to take place.

Behavioural Aspects

The model being advocated as suitable for adoption in further education has been outlined as HRM. The roots of HRM go back to the 1950's and 1960's and are to be found in the writings and researches of McGregor (1960), Drucker (1961), Argyris (1964), Herzberg (1968) and Maslow (1970). Essentially their contribution to HRM development was that they drew attention to the importance of integration and involvement within the organisation of the employees. Their ideas highlighted the need for management to accept as a basic value the need to improve the quality of working life for the employee as a means of increasing motivation and commitment, and thereby improving organisational performance. There is no doubt that what was termed 'human relations thinking' has contributed a great deal to the development of HRM and to the way that individual enterprises have treated people at work as a result of embracing these ideas, but that treatment according to Thomason (1981) -

"..... would be difficult to assess precisely. But it can be said that in the past quarter century they have brought a knowledge of method and technique in the behavioural science area into the management of organisation".(Thomason 1981)

The corporate strategist role of the human relations manager would assist in the formulation of policy that has important implications for stability and containment of effective managerial control - persuading employees to do certain things and to refrain from others. If this approach is embraced then effective personnel interventions would be welcomed and beneficial in a number of the following areas.

A recently highlighted concern in educational circles is the problems associated with stress and stress management. It has become such a problem in the teaching profession that one of the prominent teachers unions has commissioned a study to investigate the causes and incidence in education. Undoubtedly an element in this problem is the pace and incidence of change in education.

Some of the pressures and changes currently being encountered are bound to influence employment relations in colleges, posing as they do for management, the difficulties of balancing the organisation of a dynamic changing environment against the realisation and achievement of college objectives in a well-managed and effective college. At the macro level since the 1960's labour and employment relations within the country generally have undergone dramatic changes that have left their mark on education. Pressures for greater participation in the governance of colleges have been exerted by staff and students, equal opportunities and the raising of the status of women workers, sex discrimination, increase in unionisation of clerical and professional groups, militant

tactics by traditionally conservative groups eg doctors, teachers, rationalisation to achieve economies of scale and world-wide recession coupled with rising inflation, have all in their way changed the industrial relations map since the early 1970's.

A major change brought about by these forces was the response from government to contain the pressures, resulting in a spate of employment legislation that sought to regulate labour relations as never before. The Trade Union and Labour Relations Act of 1974 denotes the departure from tradition and the creation of a comprehensive legal framework supported by codes of practice. The implication for college management is that it must now function within a legal framework that provides statutory rights for employees. Failure to take cognizance of the appropriate legal provisions may result in legal action by employees. A case that highlights this need took place in 1985 when the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) completed an investigation at Ebbw Vale College of Further Education following complaints by teaching staff that more men than women were recommended for promotion. The EOC in its report found that discrimination had existed and that this discrimination was compounded by a lack of information on which recommendations were made and a failure to make clear the criteria on which promotional judgements were made, and a complete absence of staff job descriptions and appraisals.

A premium is therefore to be placed upon correct and orderly

procedures with an emphasis on formalism, which contrasts sharply with the previously held tradition of largely informal modes of operation. The view is held by Stenning (1979) that with the new mood of teacher militancy and "the growing tide of dissent in the education service, administrators will increasingly experience difficulties in coping effectively with labour problems presented to them". (p 115). The answer according to Stenning lies partly in positive employment policies and management training for senior staff. Unfortunately the contemporary scene sees education administrators lacking the expertise and skills for staff management. (Stenning 1979) (p 115)

An awareness exists within the further education system that attention needs to be given to management development. Cuthbert (1988) found that of the colleges he surveyed most of them were giving some attention to management development, but more often that not it was taking place without a statement of clear guidelines or college policies. The result of this was that it was accorded a low priority because it did not seem to have the endorsement of senior management. Yet Cuthbert found that college staff perceived a need for staff development. The arguments for management development are in many ways the same as for staff development and the HRM specialism has a great deal to contribute in this area.

Reference has been made, earlier in this study, to some of the implications of the Education Reform Act. The processes

of implementation of the Act are underway, and regardless of personal views, LEA's and college staffs are involved in preparations for implementation. The Act will have wide ranging implications for LEA's and their colleges, but no more so than in the changes to the principal's role and his responsibility for staffing. McLeod (1988) has concluded that the area of greatest concern to LEA's is that of staffing. NATFHE (1988) also has expressed concern over the confused situation relating to staffing in which the LEA remains the employer with the governing body having the power to appoint and grade staff. Considerable autonomy has existed for college managements on academic staffing. The most significant change will be

"..... the ability to conduct the administrative aspects of staffing without interference, especially on the non-teaching side" (McLeod 1988) (p702)

It will also be possible for colleges not to make use of the common services - cleaning, maintenance, and repair, catering, purchase of goods and equipment, security, transport - provided by the LEA. If the decision is for the college to sub-contract these services then the implication for the principal will be that he/she will require to establish procedures to deal with a new situation that has implications for personnel procedures and policies. Retirement and dismissal costs will fall upon the LEA, yet the decisions relating to a dismissal will have been made by the governing body of the college. This undoubtedly will be an areas of great concern to college principals and one in

future in which they will need to be fully aware of the importance of labour relations legislation; a new demand on principals at a time when they are already beset by pressures for greater planning, monitoring, evaluation and financial management. Lewis (1988) sees the key to survival lying in the technical skills of management and the quality of leadership.

Personnel policies are a way of bringing integration into an organisation. As Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) have noted

"..... as organisations become more differentiated to cope with the requirements of the market-place, so there is a greater need for the integration of the company's activities if the organisation is to survive as a unit. Personnel policies in employment, industrial relations, staff development, rewards, are often designed to prevent the centrifugal forces of profit centres from pulling the company apart."(Lawrence and Lorsch 1967)

Human resource management would assist colleges cope with the new managerialism and financial realism that lies in the future. A college with a good reputation for the high quality way in which it treats its employees is more likely to be able to attract the right calibre of staff to the college.

CONCLUSION

The tasks of managing staff are critical to the success of the college, a constantly re-iterated theme throughout this study and one for which there is a great deal of support.

Peters and Waterman (1982) along with their British epigone Goldsmith and Clutterbuck (1984) perceive "a people orientation as an important element of the success of firms in the market-place", a role that is not secondary but crucial to business success. The management of employees, the labour/employee relations, far from waning into insignificance are likely to be increasingly critical as colleges come to depend upon generating an active involvement among staff to embrace the aims of the college, to accept change and to accept flexible forms of work.

The many pressures on the college to control finances (including labour costs) will, arguably, require less reliance on staff compliance and more dependence on the development of staff commitment. It is this which makes the development of new personnel strategies and policies urgent.

A human resources management approach is being advocated because it presents a total approach to the management of people, and in the further education colleges at present this is lacking. Most colleges have made a fragmented approach with initiatives to raise the status and activity of staff development and performance appraisal systems, but they are piecemeal affairs. The operation of the college is subjected to a whole kaleidoscope of differing demands and pressures but no one person is looking at the effects on the business and on the people employed by the business. Education is characterised by 'crisis' management and shows a singular lack of corporate planning.

Thomason (1981) notes that a number of writers have predicted a growth in importance and size for personnel management in the future. The concept will move towards the human resource management model and according to Fischer (quoted by Thomason) in his four predictive propositions:

- * the personnel function will assume a more important role in the management of business
- * the personnel function will become more creative, less mechanistic
- * the personnel function will be responsible for furthering the organisation, not just maintaining it
- * top management will become more directly involved in the deployment and development of human resources

- and the last of these, the one which seems to be winning is HRM.

As a consequence of the adoption of an HRM approach, there will result from it, a need to reassess the importance of the line manager and to consider the potential of the role. The plethora of current changes have placed line managers in further education in a crucial position, for it is they who are responsible for turning policy into practice, a role that is going to be more important as a result of moves to decentralise control in further education. The success of the college will be increasingly dependent, as never before, on the quality of its management.

What is being offered here is a sophisticated model that is evolving in industry at the present. It is reasonable to

expect suspicions and a reluctance of college management to embrace a concept from industry; equally there is a need to beware of an approach that leads to uncritical acceptance. The extent to which an HRM approach will be feasible will depend on the pervasiveness of the appropriate orientations, remembering that its claim to distinctiveness lies in the integration of human resources into strategic management of the college. A necessary pre-condition for HRM to succeed will be the high premium to be attached to the management of change. The challenge to college management will be through planned organisational change.

Colleges face turbulent and interesting times ahead and they might be reluctant to embrace yet more innovation. The task is huge, but the best way to eat an elephant is a bite at a time!

References

ACSET (1985) "Advice on Training for Education Management in Further Education" - Welsh Office

ACSET (1975) "The Training of Teachers for Further Education: A Report by the Sub-Committee on the Training of Teachers for Further Education relating to the Training of full-time Teachers in Further Education" - Advisory Committee for the Supply and Training of Teachers

ACSET (1984) - Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers: Advice on Training for Education Management in Further Education - Further Education Teachers Sub-Committee. Report of the Education Management Working Party, WJEC

ACSET (1985) - Advisory Committee on the Supply and Education of Teachers: Advice on Training for Education Management in Further Education - Welsh Office

Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service Annual Report 1988

Alpander, G (1982) "Human Resource Management Planning" - New York AMACOM

Annexe to Circular 7/70 (1970) "Model Articles and Notes" - DES

Anthony, R N and Hertzlinger, R (1975) "Management Control in Non-Profit Organisations" - Irwin, Illinois

Antia, J M (1976) "Critical Success Factors in Polytechnic Performance" - Educational Administration Journal of the BEA's, Vol 5 No 1 pp. 14-37

Argyris, C (1964) "Understanding Human Behaviour" - Wiley

Argyris, C (1964) "Integrating the Individual and the Organisation" - Wiley

Armstrong, M (1987) "Human Resource Management: A Case of the Emperor's New Clothes?" - Personnel Management, August - IPM pp. 31-35

Armstrong, M (1984) "A Handbook of Personnel Management" - (2nd ed) - Kogan Page

Audit Commission (1985) "Obtaining better value from further education" - HMSO

Audit Commission (1986) "Performance Review in Local Government" - HMSO

Bain, G S (1970) "The Growth of the White Collar Workers" - Oxford University Press

Baron, G (1975) "Approaches to Educational Administration as a Field of Study, Research and Application" in "Administering Education: The International Challenge" - ed M Hughes - Athlone Press pp.20-29

Barr-Greenfield, T (1970) "Theory About Organisations: A New Perspective and its Implications for Schools" in "Administering Education: The International Challenge" - ed M Hughes - Athlone Press pp. 71-99

Becker, H S (1960) "Notes on the Concept of Commitment - American Journal of Sociology, Vol 66 pp.32-40

Belasco, A and Alutto, J A (1972) "Decisional Participation and Teacher Satisfaction" Education Administration Quarterly, Vol 8 No 1 pp.44-58

Bennett, R (1981) "Management Personnel and Performance" - Business Books

Bennett, S (1975) "The School, An Organisation Analysis" - Blackie

Bennett, S and Wilkie, R (1973) "The School and Organisation Theory" - contained in Fowler et al "Decision-Making in British Education" - Open University pp. 381-404

Birch, D (1988) "Managing Resources in Further Education: A Handbook for College Managers" - FESC

Blackburn, R M (1967) "Union Character and Social Class: A study in white collar unionism" - Batsford, London

Blake, G (1968) "To be or not to be in there fighting? That is the question. The Role of the Vice-Principal" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 18 No 5 pp. 248-251

Blake, R R and Mouton, J S (1964) "The Managerial Grid" - Gulf Pub Company

Blau, P M and Scott, W R (1963) "Formal Organisations" - Routledge

Boyd-Barratt, O et al (1983) "The Interview in Education: Some research evidence and its implications for practitioners" - C R Riches in "Approches to Post School Management" - Harper and Rou, London

Bradley, J and Silverleaf, J (1979) "Making the Grade: Careers in Further Education Teaching" - Windsor NFER

Bratchell, D F (1986) "The Aims and Organisation of Further Education" - Pergamon Press

Brewster, C and Richbell S (1982) "Getting Managers to Implement Personnel Policies" - 'Personnel Management' December. pp. 34-37

Briault, E (1976) "The Role of the Principal" - Education Administration, Vol 4 No 2 pp.35-40

Broussine, M (1984) "Employee Relations" - Block 5, Managing Staff - Open University

Brown, D A (1974) "The Role of the Vice-Principal" - the Technical Journal October

Burnaway, M (1985) "The Politics of Production" - Verso

Burnham, P S (1968) "The Deputy Head" in B Allen (ed) "Headship in the 1970's" - Blackwell

Bush, T (1983) "The Role of the Vice-Principal in Further and Higher Education" - Journal of Further and Higher Education, Vol 7 No 3 pp.14-23

Callaghan, R (1962) "Education and the Cult of Efficiency" - University of Chicago Press

Campbell, R F and Gregy, R T (1973) "Administrative Behaviour in Education" - Harper and Rowe

Cannon, J (1979) "Cost Effective Personnel Decisions " - IPM, London

Cantor, L M and Roberts, I (1983) "Further Education Today: A Critical Review" - (second edition) - Routledge and Kegan Paul

Cantor, L M and Roberts, I F (1969) "Further Education in England and Wales" - Routledge and Kegan Paul, London

Charlton, D, Gent, W, and Scammels, B (1971) "The Administration of Technical Colleges" - Manchester Union Press

Checkland, P B (1974) "Educational Management" 19 July

CIPFA (1980) "Education Statistics 1979-80 Estimates"

Circular 7/70 (1970) "Government and Conduct of Establishments of Further Education" - DES

Cmnd 3006 (1966) White Paper "A Plan for Polytechnics and Other Colleges" - HMSO

Cmnd 9135 (1984) "Training for Jobs" Department of Employment/Department of Education and Science. HMSO

Coates, R D (1972) "Teacher Unions and Interest Group Politics: A study in the behaviour of organised teachers in England and Wales" - Cambridge University Press

Copping, P and Pickles, C (1981) "Who Goes into Personnel Management?" - Personnel Executive, October. p.31

Corwin, R C (1965) "A Sociology of Education" - Appleton Crofts, New York

Coulson, A A (1976) "Research Report, Leadership Functions in Primary Schools" - Education Administration, Vol 5 No 1 pp.37-49

Cowan, N (1986) "The Future Role of the Personnel Manager" - Warwick Papers in Industrial Relations, 4 - University of Warwick

Cowan, N (1988) "Change and the Personnel Profession" - 'Personnel Managers' January

Cuthbert, R (1987) "DIY: A Manual for Locally Based College Management Development" - Longmans/FEU

Davies, D B (1973) "Union Recognition and Collective Bargaining in Lower Professional Occupations with particualr reference to Technical Colleges" - MSC Thesis - University of Wales, unpublished

Davies, P and Scribbins, K (1985) "Marketing Further and Higher Education" - Longmans

Derr, C B and DeLong, T J (1982) "What Business Management Can Teach Schools" - in "Management of Educational Institutions" - Falmer Press pp. 127-137

DES (1987) "Maintained Further Education: Finance, Governance and Law" (August) - DES

DES (1986) - Circular 1/86 - "In-Service Teacher Training Grant Scheme" January

DES (1987) - Circular 9/87 - "Maintained Further Education: Financing, Governance and Law"

DES (1980) "Education for the 16-19 Year Olds (Chairman N MacFarlane) - HMSO

DES (1981) "The Legal Basis of Further Education: A Review by Officers from the Department of Education and Science, the Welsh Office and the Local Authorities"

DoE/DES (1984) "Training for Jobs" - HMSO

Drucker, P (1952) "Management of the Professional Employee" - Harvard Business Review, Vol 30 pp.84-90

Drucker, P F (1955) "The Practice of Management" - Heinmann

Drucker, P F (1979) "Management" - An Abridged and Revised Version of "Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices" - Pan Books

Drucker, P E (1961) "The Practice of Management" - Mercury Books

East, C (1987) "The Personnel Function in Further and Higher Education" - FEU

"Education Act" (No 2) 1986 - HMSO

Edwards, P K (1987) "Factory Managers: Their Role in Personnel Management and Their Place in the Company" - Journal of Management Studies, Vol 24, No 5 (September) pp.479-501

Elboim-Dror, R (1972) "The Management System in Education and Staff Relations" - Journal of Educational Administration History, Vol 4 No 2 pp.47-56

Equal Opportunities Commission (1985) "Formal Investigation Report: Ebbw Vale College of Further Education"

Etzioni, A (1964) "Modern Organisations" - Prentice Hall, New Jersey

Everard, K B (1986) "Developing Management in Schools" - Blackwell

Farmer, C (1982) 'The Impact of the New Further Education' - "The Changing Face of FE" - FEU, December pp.57-73

Fayol, H (1949) "Administration, Industrielle, et Generale Societe de l'Industrie Minerale" (English Translation) - New York

Ferguson, F (1980) "Alternative Organisational Structures in Higher and Further Education" in "Aspects of College Management" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 12 No 12

FESC (1970) - Report of Study Conference 70/6 College Personnel Management, Vol 3 No 3

FESC (1972) - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 5 No 7

FESC (1976) - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 1 No 3

FEU (1989) "Coping with Crisis: Management Development in Further and Higher Education - Ian McNay - Longmans

FEU (1986) "Investing in Change" - an appraisal of staff development needs for the delivery of occupational training. FEN/MSD, April

FEU (1987) "Planning Staff Development - A Guide for Managers" - FEU

FEU (1987A) "Quality in NAFE" July

Fiddler, J (1981) "The British Business Elite: Its Attitudes to Class, Status and Power" - Routledge and Kegan Paul

Fischer, F E (1968) "Personnel Function in Tomorrow's Company" - Personnel (45) quoted in Thomason, G - "A Textbook of Personnel Management" - (4th ed, 1981) - IPM

Flanders, A (1968) "Collective Bargaining - A Theoretical Analysis" - British Journal of Industrial Relations, Vol 6 pp. 1-26

Formbrun, C J, Devanna, M A and Tichy, N M (1984) "A Framework for Strategic Human Resource Management" - Wiley

Foucar, K A (1970) "A Comparison of Industrial and Educational Professional Personnel Policies and Practices" - edd Arizona State University

Fowler, A (1975) "Personnel Management on Local Government" - IPM London

Fowler, A (1987) "When Chief Executives Discover HRM" - Personnel Management (January) - IPM Comment p. 3

Fox, A (1966) "Industrial Society and Industrial Relations" - Research Paper 3, Royal Commission on Trade Unions and Employers' Associations London - HMSO

Geordiades, N (1987) MCE International Management Conference, April 1987 (quoted in Armstrong, M) "Human Resource Management: A Case of the Emperor's New Clothes?" - Personnel Management - August 1987)

Giles, W J and Robinson, D F (1972) "Human Asset Accounting" - IPM, London

Glatter, R (1972) "Management Development for the Education Profession" - Harrap

Goldsmith, W and Clutterbuck, D (1984) "The Winning Streak: Britain's Top Companies Reveal Their Formula for Success" - Weidenfeld and Nicholson

- Government White Paper (1987) "Meeting the Challenge" - HMSO (CMD114)
- Gray, H L (1972) "Management in Education" - Journal of Moral Education, Vol 1 No 2 pp. 87-95
- Gray, H L and Cunningham, I (1974) "Management Courses for Teachers" - British Journal of In-Service Education Vol 1 No 1, Autumn pp.40-46
- Graystone, J (1988) "The New Era Begins" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 20 No 22 - "Life After the Reform Act" - FESC pp. 663-676
- Greenaway, H and Harding, A (1978) "Growth of Policies for Staff Development" - Guildford Research into Higher Education, Monograph 34
- Griffiths, D E (1964) "Behavioural Science and Education Administration" - the 63rd Book of the National Society for the Study of Education - University of Chicago Press
- Grusky, D (1966) "Career Mobility and Organisational Commitment" - Administrative Science Quarterly Vol 10 pp.488-503
- Guest, D (1987) "Human Resource Management" - Journal of Management Studies, March 24:7 pp. 503-521
- Guest, D (1989) "Personnel and HRM: Can You Tell the Difference?" - Personnel Management (January) - IPM pp. 48-55
- Halpin, A (1967) "Change and Organisational Climate" - Journal of Educational Administration, Vol 2 No 1 May
- Halpin, A W (1958) "Administrative Theory in Education" (ed) - MacMillan
- Handy, c (1986) "Understanding Organizations" 3rd Edition, Harmondsworth Penquin

Harkness, C A (1963) "The Development of a Program for Staff Personnel Administration in the Small College"

Harvey-Jones, T (1982) "How I See the Personnel Function" - Personnel Management (September) - IPM pp.26-28

Haskew, L D (1974) "Descriptions of a Good School Administrator" - South Western CPEA Conference, Union of Texas (1951), quoted in the Combe Lodge Report, Vol 6 No 14

Hayes (1982) "Foundation Training Issues: A Report prepared by the Manpower Services Commissions" Hayes Institute of Manpower Studies (IMS Report No 39)

Henry, S (1982) "Factory Law: The Changing Disciplinary Technology of Industrial, Social Control" - International Journal of the Sociology of Law" Vol 10

Hertzberg, F (1966) "Work and the Nature of Man" - Cleveland World Publishing

Hertzberg, F (1968) "Work and the Nature of Man" - Staples

Hicks, H G (1972) "The Management of Organisations: A Systems and Human Resource Approach" - McGraw Hill, New York

Hicks, J (1975) "College Principals and Vice-Principals and the Administration of British Colleges" - Educational Administration, Vol 4 No 1 Autumn pp. 48-59

Hilsum, S and Start, K B (1974) "Promotion and Careers in Teaching" - Windsor NFER

HMI (1982) "Teacher Training and Preparation for Working Life" HMSO

Holden, P E. Fish, L S and Smith H C. "Top-Management Organization and Control (Stanford, Col of Stanford University Press) Quoted in Tannerbaum "Leadership and Organization" MacGraw Hill 1961

Hollyhock, B (1982) "The Changing Face of FE" FEN December

Hoyle, E (1975) "Leadership and Decision-Making in Education" in "Administering Education: The International Challenge" (ed M Hughes) - Athlone Press pp. 30-44

Hughes, M G (1970) "Secondary School Administration: A Management Approach" - Pergamon Press

Hughes, M (1974) "Relevance of Organisational Theory" in "Secondary School Administration" - ed Hughes - Pergamon Press

IMS (1984) "Compétence and Competition: training and education in the Federal Republic of Germany, the United States and Japan" - National Economic Development Council/Manpower Services Commission

IPM (1979) "The Institute of Personnel Management" August

JES (1987) "Managing Colleges Efficiently - Report of a Study of Efficiency in Non-Advanced Further Education for the Government and the Local Authority Associations" - DES and Welsh Office

Johnson, J K (1966) "The Perceived Functions of Personnel Services in the Junior College of Illinois" PhD Northwestern University

Jones, D (1986) "Accountability and Budgets in Colleges: A Practical Unit Cost Approach" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 19 No 1 - FESC

Jones, R (1974) "Application of Management Principles in Schools" - in "Secondary School Administration, A Management Approach" - ed Hughes - Pergamon Press

Katz, R L (1955) "Skills of an Effective Administrator" - Harvard Business Review, Vol 33 Part 1 pp. 33-42

King, R (1973) "The Head Teacher and His Authority" in "Decision-Making in British Education" - ed by Fowler et al - Open University

Kelso, D E (1978) "Aspects of the Theory and practices of staff development as it applies to the teaching staff of colleges within the FE System in Scotland" - unpublished med.

Kedney, B and Parkes D (eds) (1985) "Responsibility and Responsiveness. Case studies in FE". FESC/AMA Joint Report
Latham, L and Cuthbert, R (1983) "A Systems Approach to College Management - FESC

Lahti, R E (1973) "Innovative College Management" - Jossey-Bass

Laurence, P R and Lorsch, J W (1967) "Organisation and Environment" - Harvard University Press

Lee, S H (1971) "An Empirical Analysis of Organisational Identification" - Academy of Management Journal, Vol 14 pp. 213-226

Leech, M (1982) "The Changing Face of FE" FEN December

Legge, K and Exley, M (1975) "Authority, Ambiguity and Adaptation: The Personnel Specialist's Dilemma" - Industrial Relations Journal, 6:3 pp. 51-65

Legge, K (1978) "Power, Innovation and Problem-Solving in Personnel Management" - McGraw Hill

Lewis, C (1988) "A Principal's View of the Reform Act" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 20 No 11 - "Life After the Reform Act" - FESC pp. 741-746

Litchfield, E H (1956) "Notes on a General Theory of Administration" - Administration Science Quarterly, 1 June pp. 3-29

Local Authorities conditions of Service Advisory Board (1978) "Employee Relations Guide for Chief Officers and Managers in Local Authorities" - LACSAB/Local Government Training Board

MacFarlane Report (1981) "Education for 16-19 year olds: a review undertaken for the Government and the Local Authority Associations" (Chairman N MacFarlane) DES

Mansell, J (1987) "The College Does It Better" - FEC

Marsh, A (1982) "Employee Relations Policy and Decision-Making" - Gower

Marsden, J J (1975) "An Assessment of some of the effects of Circular 7/10 on Technical College Administration" - M Ed Unpublished, University of Wales

Marsh, D (1982) "Maintaining and Improving Staff Quality" in 'Quality in Further Education/Higher Education: Evaluating and Managing Staff Performance' - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 15 No 7 pp.227-233

Maslow, A H (1943) "A Theory of Human Motivation" - Psychological Review 50

Maslow, A H (1970) "Motivation and Personality" - Harper and Rowe

Maynatz, R (1969) "The Study of Organisations" - Current Sociology Vol 13 No 3 pp. 93-156

McGregor, D (1960) "The Human Side of Enterprise" - McGraw Hill

McLeod, J (1988) "The Challenge of Continuity" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 20 No 11 - "Life After the Reform Act" - FESC pp. 695-705

Miles, M (1967) "Some Properties of Schools as Social Systems" in "Change in School Systems" ed G Watson - National Training Laboratories, Washington

Miller, D (1987) "Strategic Industrial Relations and Human Resource Management - Distinction, Definition and Recognition" - Journal of Management Studies 24:4 July pp. 347-361

Millett, J D (1958) "University Management and the Management Consultant" - CUPA Journal 10, November

Milstein, M M and Belasco, J A (1973) "Educational Administration and the Social Sciences. A Systems Perspective" - Allyn and Bacon

Miner, J B and Miner, M G (1977) "Personnel and Industrial Relations" - Macmillan

Morgan, C and Hall, V (1982) "The POST Project: What is the job of the secondary school head?" - Education 18 June 1982

Moxon, E R (1966) "Functions of a Personnel Department" IPM London

NAB (1987) "Good Management Practice" - Welsh Office

"NAFE in Practice" (1987) - an HMI survey - HMSO

NATFHE (1977) "College Administration - The Silver Book" ed I Waite - Longman

NATFHE (1988) "College Administration Handbook" (2nd edition) - Lock, M et al - Longman

NATFHE (1988) - NATFHE Journal Extra, October

National Advisory Board (1986) "Good Management Practice" - HMSO

National Education Association (1957) "National Commission of Teacher Education and Professional Standards - Personnel Policies for Schools of the Future" - Washington DC Education Association

National Economic Development Council/Manpower Services Commission (1984) "Competence and Competition: Training and Education in the Federal Republic of Germany, the United States and Japan"

NFER (1979) Bradley, J and Silverleaf, J "Making the Careers in Further Education Teaching" - Windsor

Nelson, J (1970) "Top Management Teams in Further Education" - Vocational Aspects of Education 28 August

NFER (1980) "Education for the 16-19 Year Olds" - a review undertaken for the Government and the Local Authority Associations - HMSO

Nicolson, S (1968) "The Application of Management Principles to the Internal Administration of Technical Colleges" - MSC Thesis - University of Salford, unpublished

Noble, T and Pym, B (1970) "Collegial Authority and the Receding Locus of Power" - British Journal of Sociology, Vol 21 No 4 pp. 431-445

O U (1983) "Open University Management in Post-Contemporary Education - Policy-Making, Structure and Leadership" - Block 3

Owen, W (1984) "Could the Post of Head of Department be Abolished?" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 17 No 5

Oxtoby, R (1979) "Problems Facing Heads of Departments" - Journal of Further and Higher Education, Vol 3 No 1 pp. 46-57

Paisey, A (1983) "Organisation and Management in Schools" - Longmans

Parker, P (1983) "How I See the Personnel Function" - Personnel Management (September) - IPM pp.16-19

Parkes, D (1982) "The Changing Face of Further Education" (ed D Parkes) - FEU December

Pascale, T and Athos, A G (1981) "The Art of Japanese Management" - Simon and Schuster

Payne, I V (1967) "The Development of an Instrument for the Appraisal of the Personnel Program in a School System" Ed D University of New Mexico

Peters, T and Austin, N (1985) "A Passion for Excellence" - Collins

Porter, J (1972) "The New Role of the College Principal" - London Education Review pp. 29-33

Porter, M E (1985) "Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance" - New York Free Press

Pritchett, G R (1975) "Personnel Officers - Why Were They Ever Invented?" - Education 19, September

Purcell, J (1985) "Is Anyone Listening to the Corporate Personnel Department?" - Personnel Management (September) pp. 28-31

Rebores, R (1982) "Personnel Administration in Education" - Prentice Hall

Reddin, W J (1970) "Managerial Effectiveness" - McGraw Hill

Reynolds, D (1983) "What Makes a Good School?" - Education 30, September (p 271)

Richmond, A (1983) "The Role of the College Principal" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 15 No 10

Robins Report (1963) - HMSO

Scribbins, K and Walton, F (1987) "Staff Appraisal in Further and Higher Education - Combe Lodge Report

Sergiovanni, T J (1967) "Factors Which Affect Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers" - Journal of Educational Administration (May) Vol 5 pp. 66-82

Sergiovanni, T J and Carver, F D (1973) "The New School Executive: A theory of administration" - Mead, New York

Sergiovanni, T J and Starratt, (1971) "Emerging Patterns of Supervision: Human Perspectives" - McGraw Hill

Sheen, P (1983) "The Impossibility of being a Principal. A Plea for Understanding" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 15 No 10

Sheldon, M E (1971) "Investments and Involvements as Mechanisms Producing Commitment to the Organisation" - Administrative Science Quarterly pp.143-150

Sieber, S D (1968) "Organisational Influences on Innovative Roles" - in "Knowledge, Production and Utilisation in Educational Administration" ed T L eiduell and K M Kitchel - Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, Oregon Eugene

Skinner, W (1981) "Big hat, no cattle: managing human resources" - Harvard Business Review 59: September/October pp.106-114

Sisson, K and Scullen, H (1985) "Putting the corporate personnel department in its place" - Personnel Management December

Spayde, P E (1952) "Improving Personnel Practices" - The Nation's Schools (October) quoted in Foucar, K A (1970) "A comparison of Industrial and Educational Professional Personnel Policies and Practices" D ed Arizona State University pp.51-52

Stenning, R (1979) "The Changing Nature of Employment Relations in Secondary Schools" - Education Administration, Vol 7 No 2 pp. 99-116

Stevens, E D (1957) "Selected Personnel Policies and Practices used in Business and Industry and their Implications for Educational Administration" PhD - University of Connecticut

Stewart, J D (1972) "Local Government: Changing patterns of Management" - Education, Management 23rd June

Stouffer, A A et al (1965) "The American Soldier" - J Wiley

Tannenbaum, R, Weschler, I R and Massarik, F (1961) "Leadership and Organisation" - McGraw Hill

Taylor, W (1969) "Society and the Education of Teachers" - Faber

Theodossin, E (1986) "In Search of the Responsive College" - FESC

Thomas, R E (1970) "Organisation of the Education Enterprise" - Combe Lodge Report, Vol 3 No 14

Thomason, G (1975) "Organisation and Management" in "Secondary School Administration: The International Challenge" - ed Hughes - Atlone Press

Thomason, G (1981) "A Textbook of Personnel Management" (4th ed) - IPM, London

Thomason, G F (1989) "Human Resource Management" - Unpublished Paper

Thomason, G F (1988) "A Textbook of Human Resource Mananagement" IPM

Thurley, K (1981) "Personnel Management in the UK - A Case for Urgent Treatment?" - Personnel Management August p28

Thurley, K and Wood, S (1983) "Industrial Relations Strategy" (eds) - Cambridge University Press

Tipton, B (1973) "Conflict and Change in a Technical College" - Hutchinson (Brunel FE Monograms No 6)

Tolley, G (1972) "The Managerial Role of the Head of Department - the Technical Journal April pp.12-16

Tomlinson, M (1986) "The Way Ahead in Further Education Staff Development" - Further Education Staff College Invitation Conference, December (pp.6 - 8)

Torrington, D and Hall, L (1987) "Personnel Management: A New Approach" - Prentice Hall International

Travers, B (1976) "The Personnel Function" - Combe Lodge Report "Staffing" - Vol 9 No 3

Tyson, S (1979) "Specialists in Ambiguity: Personnel Management as an Occupation" - Phd Thesis University of London

Tyson, S and Fell, A (1986) "Evaluating the Personnel Function" - Hutchinson

Tyson, S (1983) "Personnel Managment in its Organisational Context" in Thurley, K and Wood, S (eds) "Industrial Relations and Management Strategy" - Cambridge University Press
Vroom, V (1983) "Work and Motivation" - Wiley, New York

Turner, S M (1980) "The Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions: a case study of teacher unionism" Phd Bristol University

Walton, J (1975) "The Dissimilarity of Educational Administration" - Vol 1, "Management in Education" - ed Houghton et al - Ward Locke Education and Open University pp. 14-19

Walworth, W (1973) "Staff Personnel Officers: A Definition of Role" - Community and Junior College Journal, Vol 4 No 4 pp. 40-41

Watson, E (1973) "Office and Expertise in the Secondary School" - Educational Research, Vol 2 No 2 reprinted in "Decision-making in British Education" - Fowler et al - Open University pp. 405-421

Watson, T J (1977) "The Personnel Managers: A Study in the Sociology of Work and Employment" - Routledge and Kegan Paul

Weber, M (1974) "The Theory of Social and Economic Organisation" - Free Press

WJEC (1988) Welsh Joint Education Committee "A College Staff Development Review Pack" - final report of the North East Wales Professional Development Unit - March

WJEC (1985) Response to the Report of the Education Management Working Group of ACSET's, Further Education Teachers Sub-Committee, March

Wheeler, G (1974) "Research Management and College Development" -Combe Lodge Staff College, Vol 6 No 14

Wilkinson, D (1985) "How the DES views the future of appraisal in schools and colleges" - an update from the department. Text of speech to Education for Industrial Society, London 3 July quoted in 'Education Digest' - 8 January 1988

Winkler, J T (1974) "The ghost at the bargaining table: directors and industrial relations" - British Journal of Industrial Relations 12:2 July pp. 191-212

White Paper (1966) "Higher Education in the Further Education System" HMSO

White Paper (1984) Cmnd 9135 "Training for Jobs" HMSO

White Paper (1985) Cmnd 9482 "Education and Training for Young People" HMSO

White Paper (1987) "Higher Education: Meeting the Challenge" HMSO

Yang, D C (1957) "A Study of Principles, Policies and Techniques of Personnel Relations in Industry and Their Implications for Personnel Relations in Education" Phd Florida State University

Yoder, D (1970) "Personnel Management and Industrial Relations" - Prentice Hall, New Jersey

GLOSSARY OF ABBREVIATIONS

ACAS	Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitrations Service
ACC	Association of County Councils
ACS	Average Class Size
ACSET	Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers
ACSTT	Advisory Committee for the Supply and Training of Teachers
AEO	Assistant Education Officer
ALH	Average Lecturer Hours
AMA	Association of Metropolitan Authorities
APC	Association of Principals of Colleges
APT	Association of Professional Tutors
ASH	Average Student Hours
BTEC	Business and Technician Education Council
CEO	Chief Education Officer
CFE	College of Further Education
CLEA	Council of Local Education Authorities
CNAA	Council for National Academic Awards
COMBE LODGE	The Further Education Staff College
CPVE	Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education
CTC	City Technical College
C&G	City and Guilds of London Institute

DES	Department of Education and Science
EOC	Equal Opportunities Commission
FE	Further Education
FESC	Further Education Staff College
FEU	Further Education Unit
FTE	Full Time Equivalent
GCSE	General Certificate of Secondary Education
HMI	Her Majesty's Inspectorate
HOD	Head of Department
HRM	Human Resources Management
IMS	Institute of Manpower Studies
INSET	Inservice Education and Training of Teachers
ITEC	Information Technology Centre
JES	Joint Efficiency Study
JTS	Job Training Scheme
LACSAB	Local Authorities Conditions of Service Advisory Board
LEA	Local Education Authority
MSC	Manpower Services Commission
NAB	National Advisory Body for Public Sector Higher Education
NAFE	Non-Advanced Further Education
NALGO	National Association of Local Government Officers
NATFHE	National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education
NCVQ	National Council for Vocational Qualifications

NFER	National Foundation for Educational Research
NJC	National Joint Council for Further Education Teachers
NVQ	National Vocational Qualifications
OU	Open University
PAT	Professional Association of Teachers
RAC	Regional Advisory Council
REE	Regional Examining Body
RSA	Royal Society of Arts
RSG	Rate Support Grant
SDO	Staff Development Officer
SSR	Staff Student Ratio
TA	Training Agency
TOPS	Training Opportunities Scheme
TVEI	Training, Vocational, Education Initiative
WAB	Wales Advisory Body
WRNAFE	Work Related Non-Advanced Further Education
WJEC	Welsh Joint Education Committee
YTS	Youth Training Scheme

APPENDIX 1

THE LEGAL BASIS OF FURTHER EDUCATION

Extracts from the Education Act 1944 (as amended)

Section 7:

Stages and purposes of statutory system of education: The Statutory system of public education shall be organised in three progressive stages to be known as primary education, secondary education, and further education; and it shall be the duty of the local education authority for every area, so far as their powers extend, to contribute towards the spiritual, moral, mental, and physical development of the community by securing that efficient education throughout those stages shall be available to meet the needs of the population of their area.

Section 41:

General duties of local education authorities with respect to further education: Subject as hereinafter provided, it shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision for their area of adequate facilities for further education, that is to say:

a full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age; and

b leisure-time occupation, in such organised cultural, training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for that purpose:

Provided that the provisions of this section shall not empower or require local education authorities to secure the provision of facilities for further education otherwise than in accordance with schemes of further education or at county colleges.

Section 42:

Schemes of further education: (1) Every local authority shall, at such times and in such form as the Secretary of State may direct, prepare and submit to the Secretary of State schemes of further education for their area, giving particulars of the provision which the authority propose to make for fulfilling such of their duties with respect to further education, other than duties with respect to county colleges, as may be specified in the direction.

(2) Where a scheme of further education has been submitted to the Secretary of State by a local education authority, the Secretary of State may, after making in the scheme such modifications if any as after consultation with the authority he thinks expedient, approve the scheme, and thereupon it shall be the duty of the local education authority to take such measures as the Secretary of State may from time to time, after consultation with the authority, direct for the purpose of giving effect to the scheme.

(3) A scheme of further education approved by the Secretary of State in accordance with the provisions of this section may be modified, supplemented or replaced by a further scheme prepared, submitted and approved in accordance with those provisions, and the Secretary of State may give directions revoking any scheme of further education, or any provision contained in such a scheme, as from such dates as may be specified in the directions, but without prejudice to the preparation, submission and approval of further schemes.

(4) A local education authority shall, when preparing any scheme of further education, have regard to any facilities for further education provided for their area by universities, educational associations, and other bodies, and shall consult any such bodies as aforesaid and the local education authorities for adjacent areas; and the scheme, as approved by the Secretary of State, may include such provisions as to the co-operation of any such bodies or authorities as may have been agreed between them and the authority by whom the scheme was submitted.

APPENDIX 2

Current further education categorised in institutional terms.

(i) Polytechnics - 30 polytechnics in England and Wales complement the university sector.

(ii) Other maintained and assisted major establishments - embraces 'colleges of technology', 'colleges of further education', 'technical colleges', and the new 'colleges of higher education'. A 'major establishment' may be defined in practice as an establishment of further education, other than a polytechnic, maintained or assisted by a local authority and providing courses in teacher training, art, agriculture, commercial, technical and other subjects.

(iii) Direct-grant establishments - defined as major establishments which receive direct grant aid from the Department of Education and Science (DES).

(iv) Voluntary Colleges - colleges of education which were established by educational foundations, often denominated, maintained by direct grant from the DES

(v) Independent Colleges

(vi) Adult Education Centres - maintained by local authorities, providing a range of non-vocational courses of a recreational nature; they may be described as complementary to that of the maintained further education system.

(vii) Independent Establishments - recognised as efficient - these are given approved status by the DES and deemed to be "efficient".

APPENDIX 3

Index to Theses Accepted for Higher Degrees in the Universities of Great Britain and Ireland (Aslib).

British research material of interest.

An organised analysis of a college of further education with particulare reference to curriculum change - Fraser, D D, London Institute of Education PhD - 1978

The application of management techniques in colleges of further education - Moore, D J - 1973

An organisational analysis of technical institutions - Phillips, A I, M Phil - 1975

The application of management principles in the internal administration of technical colleges - Nicolson, S, Salford University MSc - 1968

A post-war English Technical College: the development, staff structure and climate of an educational organisation - Tipton, B F A, M Phil - 1970

The Association of Teachers in Technical Institutions: a case study of teacher unionism - Turner, S M, Bristol University PhD - 1980

Aspects of the theory and practices of staff development as it applies to the teaching staff of colleges within the further education system in Scotland - Kelso, D E, MEd - 1978

An assessment of some of the effects of Curcular 7/70 on Technical College administration - Marsden, J J, University of Wales MEd - 1975

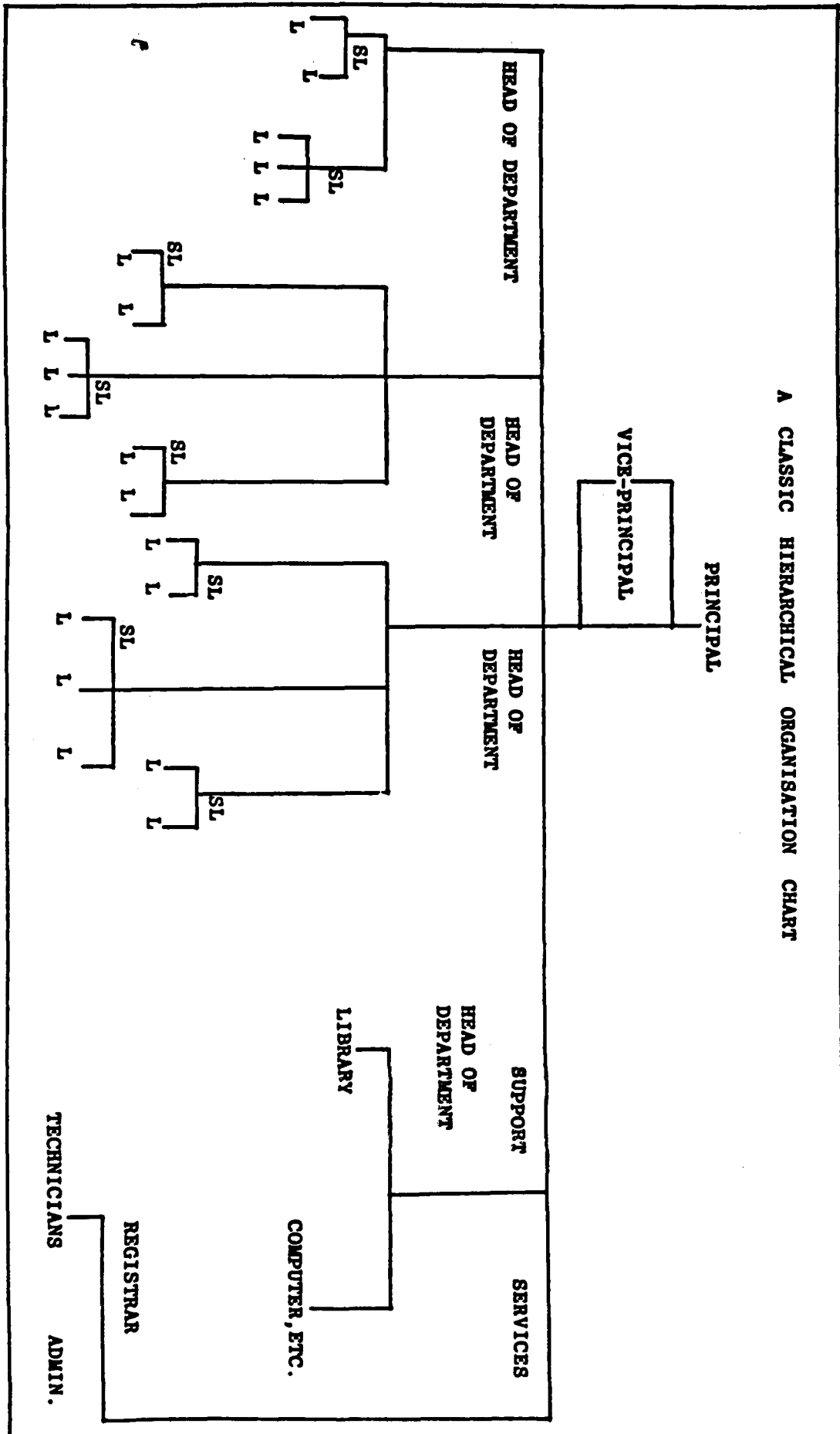
Union Recognition and Collective Bargaining in Lower Professional Occupations with particular reference to Technical Colleges - Davies, D B, University of Wales MSc - 1973

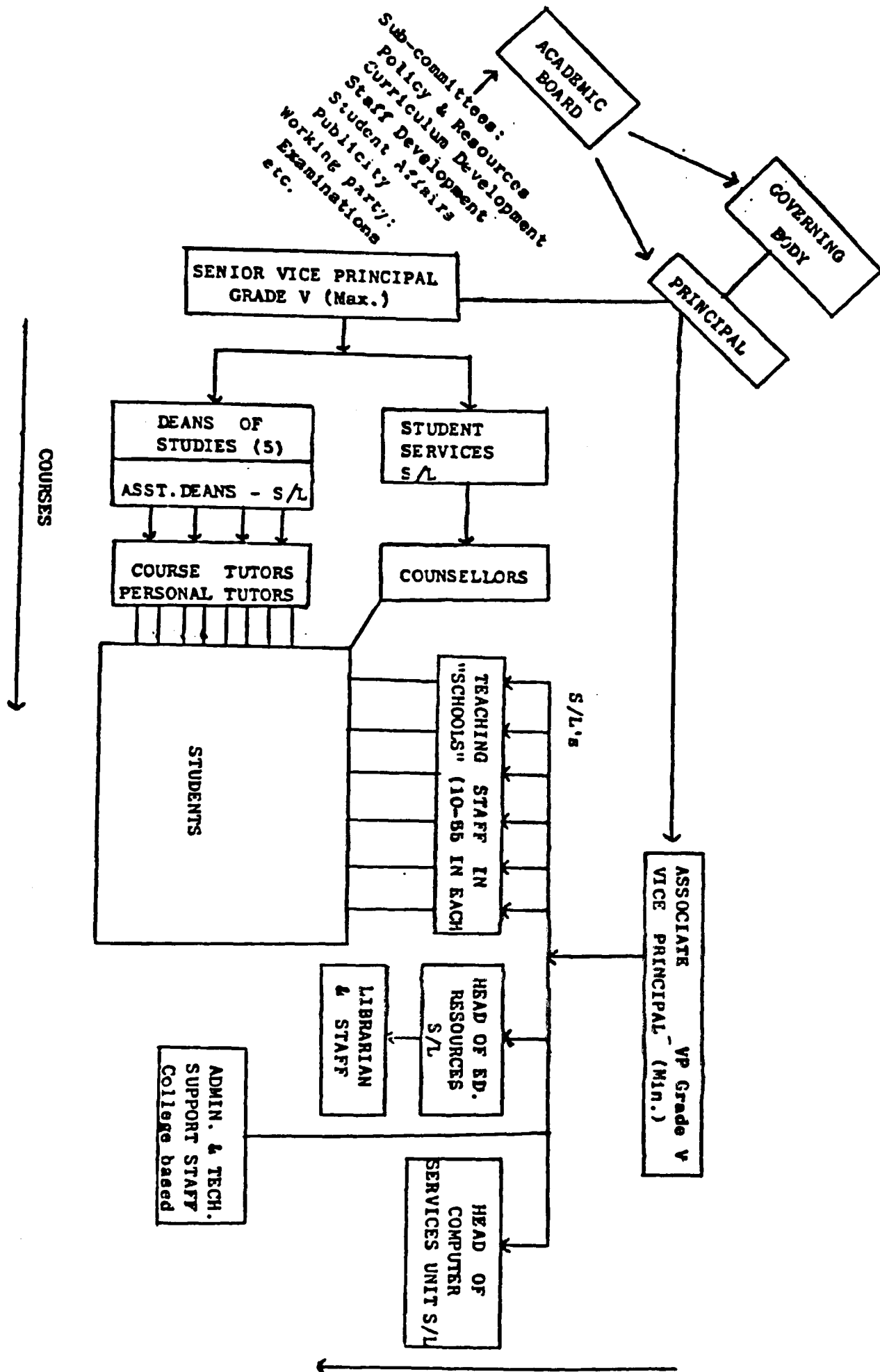
M G Hughes, (ed) 1970 "Secondary School Administration: A Management Approach" - Pergamon Press

J Nelson (1970) "Top Management Teams in Further Education" - Vocational Aspects of Education, 28 August

- N Davies (1975) "Managing a Further Education College" - Education and Training, October
- D Thomas (1974) "Management Problems in Further Education" - Education and Training, No 16 November
- H L Gray (1974) "LEA's need new ideas on recruitment and promotion" - Education 143, 29 March
- R Glatter (1972) "Management Development for the Education Profession" - Harrap
- Combe Lodge Information Bank Papers and Reports - Further Education Staff College, Combe Lodge, Bristol
- J Bradley and J Silverleaf (1979) "Making the Grade: Careers in Further Education Teaching, Windsor, NFER
- J M Antia (1976) "Critical Success Factors in Polytechnic Performance" - Education Administration Vol 5, No 1 Autumn
- B Hollyhock (1982) "Middle Management" - 'The Changing Face of Further Education' - FEU December
- Management in Education (1976) Education Studies - A Third Level Course E321 Open University

A CLASSIC HIERARCHICAL ORGANISATION CHART





PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

The textbook usually includes the following activities of personnel management

The enterprise usually requires action to provide the following

The individual usually demands action to create the following

1	Personnel policy formation (General).	A statement of objectives and standards to be followed by all acting in the name of the organization.	A perception of the organization's 'care' for its members, including a notion of justice and fairness.
1a	Manpower policy and planning (dealing with the interface between enterprise and labour market).	A statement of how the enterprise projects itself into the future as an appropriately manned enterprise.	A perception of the organization's concern to maintain efficiency in manning consistent with security of those who have invested their working lives in it.
1b	Policy and planning in respect of the work environment (welfare amenities, health and safety and services).	A costed statement of the conditions under which employment is offered in order to secure contributions required of employees at all levels.	A perception of the treatment offered by the employer to employees, including opportunities for personal development and growth.
2	Organization design (job analysis, communications, procedures, recognition).	An organization equipped with adequately defined roles and adequate communications channels to permit optimization contribution.	An organization equipped with adequate structures and procedures to allow individual and sectional goals to be given due consideration.
2a	Communications (disclosure, counselling and consultation).	A solution to the top-down and lateral communications problems of organizations.	A reasonable opportunity for all employees to be informed of problems, policies and projections.

2b Mutual influence (joint negotiating, disciplinary committees).

A bargaining structure which meets the demand consistently with time and money, costs of securing acceptance of policies etc.

An adequate opportunity to employees to exert their influence upon policies, practices, and projects.

3 Control of labour.

Information action on activities intended to secure appropriate labour:

- (i) recruitment and selection
- (ii) performance appraisal
- (iii) promotion etc
- (iv) training
- (v) reward package
- (vi) environmental climate

Fair and consistent actions intended to ensure the dignity of labour:

- (i) job opportunities
- (ii) recognition of worth
- (iii) development of person
- (iv) learning opportunity
- (v) fair rewards
- (vi) good treatment

4 Control of power.

Definition of authority or discretion to decide, usually by tacit or open agreement manifest in:

- (i) job definitions
- (ii) rule books
- (iii) collective agreements

Acceptance of fair definitions of authority and discretion preferably by open discussion and joint agreement manifest in:

- (i) collective agreements
- (ii) union rule books
- (iii) joint decisions

APPENDIX 7

FUNCTIONAL DIRECTORS

Introduction

In traditional departmental structures, Heads are responsible to the Principal along a vertical line of authority for all functions of an academic nature in a recognised part of a college's provision. In this new organisation, responsibilities undertaken will have a more horizontal role in that they span the whole breadth of the college. Having undertaken a study of the major responsibility areas in the College, four functional areas are easily recognised; namely curriculum, students, staffing and resources. As well, and primarily due to the seemingly ever increasing pressure to accommodate change, a fifth Director is essential. The curricular provision is regularly being examined and developed, examples currently being CPVE, BTEC, as well as other examination boards offering general and vocational education. Couple this with the demands for 'work related' training and education for adults and youth retraining and training, and the problem of development can be understood. To allow the College to respond quickly and positively a Directorate of Development has been established. The term Director has been chosen to distinguish the more horizontal role of the incumbent as against the more vertical role of a Head of Department. Accordingly, the five Directors in the organisation are:

Director of Studies - primarily curriculum areas

Director of Student Affairs - primarily students

Director of Personnel - primarily staffing areas

Director of Resources - primarily budget and physical resources

Director of Development - primarily promoting curriculum change

Each Director has specific responsibilities as well as those which will be best dealt with through management team action. Included in the latter is evolving and managing an effective admissions procedure. This is a year long process embracing parents' evenings, careers' events, schools' visits and talks.

Each Director will be allocated liaison responsibility for a particular 11-16 school and is expected to develop professional relationships leading to a smooth transition of students to the Tertiary College, as well as, in conjunction with the specialist County Advisor, subject liaison groups which can promote a commonality of approach to the teaching of the subject and help smooth the move between the 11-16 and 16-19 provision.

All Directors are members of the College management team which meets weekly with the Principal and Vice-Principals. At such meetings they are not only seen as the primary advisers in their functional areas, but also as leaders in broad disciplines. They are members of the Academic Board and are expected to promote communication and development through active participation in its sub-committee structure.

The management team undertakes an annual review of the organisation, aimed at establishing a high degree of effectiveness. Opportunity is afforded for the Directors to change roles so as to broaden the opportunities for experience and also promote a freshened commitment to the achievement of excellence.

All work and decisions in the College should be such that they are aimed at improving the quality of the education and learning experience of the students. It is the course team which is seen as the focal point of action aimed at such achievement of excellence. Accordingly, all Directors acting as Senior Tutors will be expected to work closely with Course Tutors so as to ensure the maximum of support to the student group.

The organisation must be such that it promotes, wherever necessary, the means whereby change can be affected. A great number of the ideas on change, particularly in the area of new courses/curriculum, emanate from the level of Lecturer. Accordingly, it is important to encourage the flow of such ideas. The power of veto on these suggestions is not to be owned by any individual in the establishment other than the Principal.

Responsibilities Common to Each Director

These are as follows:-

As part of the management team, provide leadership aimed at enhancing the quality of the students' learning experience.

Promote the pursuit of means whereby the Directors and College can appreciate and pursue the needs of the broad community we serve.

Regularly review the College programme and promote development of the learning environment and curriculum followed.

Advise the Principal on policy matters relating to the functional areas for which he/she is responsible.

Act as a Senior Tutor with direct responsibility for a group of Course Tutors and their functions.

Regularly keep abreast of developments in the areas in which he/she has especial interest; positively influence through the formal committee system and informally with colleagues, the development of the subject areas and the teaching staff concerned.

Assist Section Leaders in optimising the performance of staff by effective execution of his/her functional duties for which he/she has delegated responsibility.

Liaise with other Directors on matters which relate to multiple functions.

Ensure that the highest possible standards are maintained for behaviour, discipline and tidiness within the College community.

Undertake teaching duties of a minimum of five hours each week.

Co-operate with the Principal and Vice Principals in establishing a presence at the College of a senior member of staff during the vacation periods.

Work together in the management team to monitor the efficiency and effectiveness of the College according to agreed national and local criteria.

Establish clearly the role to be taken by the Deputy Directors and give the necessary support and guidance.

DIRECTOR OF PERSONNEL

SPECIFIC RESPONSIBILITIES

- 1 Act as Senior Tutor to Community Care Courses and for Special Needs students. Maintain close contacts with Course Teams and oversee their functions and performance.
- 2 Act as Liaison Officer for one Partner School, namely Pentrehafod Comprehensive.
- 3 Act as Staff Development Officer for the College. Manage a system of staff development in line with identified College needs. Plan and organise in-house in-service training and match College need to external provision. Establish a system of formal staff reports and necessary follow-up. Manage the GRIST budget.
- 4 Manage the College appraisal system.
- 5 Develop and manage staff induction programmes.
- 6 Ensure staff timetables are compiled in line with agreed "Conditions of Service". Develop and maintain a timetable grid depicting staff teaching responsibilities within each Section.
- 7 Arrange for full-time staff appointments. Develop the necessary job descriptions and advertising material.
- 8 Develop a system to control part-time appointments to the College, to maintain part-time staff records and to control part-time teaching claims for payment.
- 9 Oversee the maintenance of a staff records system.
- 10 Oversee the training programmes of student teachers.
- 11 Plan a College programme for Administration Week.